CENTURY COLLEGIATE HANDBOOK

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GARLAND GREEVER
EASLEY S. JONES

REVISED EDITION

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THE CENTURY
COLLEGIATE HANDBOOK

REVISED

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1934-

THE CENTURY COLLEGIATE HANDBOOK

BY

Garland Greever

AND

Easley S. Jones

REVISED EDITION

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PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION

The Century Collegiate Handbook, Revised Edition, is a manual for the use of college and university students of writing. Part I treats essential matters of sentence structure, grammar, diction, spelling, and punctuation. Part II treats the form and organization of the theme as a whole and of the paragraph, the large topics of logic and style, and the habits and procedures which students of writing do well to cultivate.

The plan of the original *Century Collegiate Handbook* was simple. That of the present text is even further simplified. Virtually every article is completely rewritten, and the number of articles is reduced from 139 to 55. This drastic numerical reduction not only is effected without loss of vital content, but is accompanied by the addition of units on library research, note-taking and summarizing, the writing of term papers, and theme revision. The chart shows, on two opposite pages, the headings of articles, so that student or instructor can see at a glance the resources of the volume or the number of a particular item.

The book, like its predecessor, throws upon the student the responsibility of teaching himself. Each article begins with a concise rule, which is illustrated with examples; then follows an exercise which the instructor may assign by adding an **x** to the numeral he writes in the margin of a theme. Necessarily, while performing the exercise the student will give attention to the rule. Thus he will conquer his individual weakness through study of a basic principle, and will at every hand connect theory with practice.

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PART ONE

THE SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS

THE COMPLETE SENTENCE

Fragments Wrongly Used as Sentences

1. Do not write a subordinate part of a sentence as if it were a whole sentence.

THE COMPLETE STATEMENT TEST

Does the group of words make a complete statement?

If it does, it forms a sentence. If it does not, it forms only a fragment of a sentence.

Wrong: Early man lacked the strength of the larger animals. And was inferior to many insects in the ability to live under adverse conditions. [Apply the test. Read aloud the words *And was inferior to many insects in the ability to live under adverse conditions.* Do these words make a complete statement? No. They contain part of a thought, but not a whole thought. To round out a thought they must be joined to other words.]

Right: Early man lacked the strength of the larger animals and was inferior to many insects in the ability to live under adverse conditions.

Wrong: Behind the manager's desk sat a redheaded secretary. Ripping open envelopes and tossing them into a wastebasket. [The second group of words does not in itself convey a complete meaning. It must be joined to the first.]

Right: Behind the manager's desk sat a redheaded secretary, ripping open envelopes and tossing them into a wastebasket.

FIRST APPROACH TO THE GRAMMAR TEST

The complete statement test depends wholly on thought. It may be made by a person who is ignorant of grammar.

Nevertheless you as a student should know the basic grammatical distinctions by means of which the wholeness of a sentence may be tested. The first distinction you should master is that between a finite verb and a verbal.

A **finite verb** is a verb in one of the forms which assert something. In the sentence "The baby now walks" the word *walks* tells us what the baby does; it is a finite verb. In the sentence "Snow has been falling since midnight" the words *has been falling* tell us what the snow has done; they are a finite verb.

A **verbal** is a word or group of words derived from a verb but used, at least mainly, as a noun or modifier. It does not take a subject. It does not, like a finite verb, assert something.

There are three kinds of verbals: participles, infinitives, and gerunds.

A **participle** is a verbal used as an adjective It may either precede or follow the noun it modifies. Examples:

> *Standing*, a person seems tall. [*Standing* has the force of a regular adjective: An *erect* person seems tall.]
>
> Isabel, *musing*, did not reply. [Regular adjective: Isabel, *pensive*, did not reply.]
>
> At last the ship had become a hulk, *battered* by a thousand storms. [Regular adjective: The ship had become a hulk, *helpless* after a thousand storms.]

An **infinitive** is a verbal used as a noun or modifier. Ordinarily it is introduced by *to*. Examples:

> Her ability *to sing* was soon discovered. [Ordinary adjective: Her *vocal* ability was soon discovered.]
>
> *To have been defeated* is his misfortune. [Ordinary noun: Past *defeat* is his misfortune.]

A **gerund** is a verbal used as a noun. Ordinarily it contains the ending *ing*. Examples:

Seeing is *believing*. [Ordinary nouns: *Sight* is *belief*.]
For *having answered* correctly you shall receive the prize. [Ordinary noun: For correct *answers* you shall receive the prize.]*

A group of words supported by a verbal alone (and not by a finite verb) cannot stand in a sentence to itself.

Oral Exercise

Point out each finite verb, each participle, each infinitive, each gerund.

1. Men are prone to misjudge.
2. Having pondered long, he is ready to decide.
3. We have been trying to give reasons for behaving as we did.
4. The child, crying fretfully, seems to have worn itself to sleep.
5. Through having built higher levees the engineers keep the stream from overflowing.

SECOND APPROACH TO THE GRAMMAR TEST

The second grammatical distinction which you as a student should learn is that between a main (or independent) clause and a subordinate (or dependent) clause.

A **main clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and no subordinating word. Examples:

Wolves howl. [The clause contains but two words, a subject *wolves* and a verb *howl*.]
The unrest has increased alarmingly. [The clause contains a subject *unrest*, a verb *has increased*, and other words besides.]

---

* For a further study of verbals see **14**.

Night has fallen and the stars have come forth. [Here are two main clauses. Each would express a complete thought if it stood in a sentence to itself, thus: *Night has fallen. The stars have come forth.*]

A **subordinate clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and that does the work of a single part of speech—adjective, adverb, or noun. It is introduced by

a subordinating conjunction	when, where, if, while, though, unless, because, as, that, so that, etc.;
or a relative pronoun	who, which, that, whom, whose, whoever, (by) whom, (during) which, etc.

Examples:

Subordinate clause as adjective: The runner *who wins* is wildly applauded. [The sentence could read: The *successful* runner is wildly applauded.]

Subordinate clause as adverb: They will come *where we are*. [The sentence could read: They will come *here*.]

Subordinate clause as noun: *Whatever you ask* shall be granted. [The sentence could read: Your *requests* shall be granted.]

Since a subordinate clause does the work of a single part of speech, it cannot stand in a sentence to itself.*

When you have learned the difference between a finite verb and a verbal, and between a main clause and a subordinate clause, you can apply the grammar test to a sentence. The grammar test consists of two parts.

---

* Note, however, that some of the words listed as subordinating conjunctions or as relative pronouns may be used as other parts of speech, in which case they may belong to main clauses, that is, to complete sentences. Examples: *When* do you go? *Where* is your shawl? *Who* is the first? *That* is his room. *That* bucket leaks.

FRAGMENTS WRONGLY USED AS SENTENCES

THE GRAMMAR TEST

Does the group of words contain at least a subject and a finite verb? And does it form a main clause rather than a subordinate one?

If it does these two things, it is a sentence. If it fails to do either or both of them,* it is only a fragment of a sentence.

Wrong: The workmen climb to the second story. With hods of brick on their shoulders. [Read aloud the words *With hods of brick on their shoulders*. Do they contain a subject and verb? No; they do not contain any verb at all; they contain three nouns, but no subject. Try further. Do they form a main clause? No; they form no clause of either kind, main or subordinate. Hence by both parts of the grammar test they fail to constitute a sentence.]

Right: The workmen climb to the second story with hods of brick on their shoulders.

Wrong: It is easy to spend. When you have the cash in your pocket. [The words *When you have the cash in your pocket* contain a subject and a verb. But they are introduced by the subordinating conjunction *when*; unlike a main clause, they fail to present a complete grammatical structure.]

Right: It is easy to spend when you have the cash in your pocket.

Research has shown that in the writing of students certain types of incomplete sentences recur.

CHIEF TYPES OF FRAGMENTS

*Prepositional Phrase Detached***

Wrong: Such students work hard. From the very shortness of their hours or with an eye to Phi Beta Kappa.

---

* If it fails to do the first it cannot do the second.

A **phrase is a group of words "introduced" by a preposition or a verbal (the "introducing" term does not always come first). A prepositional phrase is "introduced" by a preposition: *of*, *in*, *with*, *by*, *for*, *like*, *to*, *at*, *down*, *from*, *over*, *under*, *through*, *between*, *among*, *above*, *below*, *except*, etc.

Right: Such students work hard, from the very shortness of their hours or with an eye to Phi Beta Kappa.

Subordinate Clause Detached

Wrong: We must send social workers into the homes. If we would learn what the living conditions are.

Right: We must send social workers into the homes if we would learn what the living conditions are. [The *if* clause modifies *must send*.]

Wrong: The teamsters drive out these men. Who have come among them as stool pigeons.

Right: The teamsters drive out these men, who have come among them as stool pigeons. [The *who* clause modifies *men*.]

Verbal Phrase Detached

Wrong [participial phrase]: The tires are worn thin. Having been used for twenty thousand miles.

Right: The tires are worn thin, having been used for twenty thousand miles. [Or] The tires are worn thin. They have been used for twenty thousand miles. [Often the best correction is to give the detached element a subject and verb and to express the idea independently.]

Wrong [infinitive phrase]: Thousands of men have been at work. To check the spread of blister rust and beetles through the pine forests of the South and West.

Right: Thousands of men have been at work to check the spread of blister rust and beetles through the pine forests of the South and West.

Wrong [gerund phrase]: Certainly you make yourself a lawbreaker. By parking in front of driveways.

Right: Certainly you make yourself a lawbreaker by parking in front of driveways.

OTHER TYPES OF FRAGMENTS

Detached member of a compound predicate: Nowadays we erect taller buildings. But make them securer from earthquakes.

Right: Nowadays we erect taller buildings but make them securer from earthquakes.

Detached appositive*: At Jamestown stands a ruined tower. A memorial of the historic first settlement.

Right: At Jamestown stands a ruined tower, a memorial of the historic first settlement.

Detached repetitions of a grammatical construction: It is a land of desert stretches. A land of distant mountains. A land of sparse population.

Right: It is a land of desert stretches, a land of distant mountains, a land of sparse population. [Or] It is a land of desert stretches—a land of distant mountains—a land of sparse population.

Detached items of a series: We may name the chief parts of a fountain pen: first, the point. This does the writing. Second, the barrel. This holds the ink. Third, the cap. This protects the pen when it is carried in the pocket.

Right: We may name the chief parts of a fountain pen: the point, the barrel, and the cap. The first does the writing. The second holds the ink. The third protects the pen when it is carried in the pocket. [Or] We may name the chief parts of a fountain pen. The first is the point; this does the writing. The second is the barrel; this holds the ink. The third is the cap; this protects the pen when it is carried in the pocket.

Note 1.—A wrongly detached part of a sentence follows rather than precedes the main statement. The reason is that usually the main statement is complete in itself. The writer has reached a point where he can place a period and have a complete grammatical unit. This being so, he has not paused to ask whether the succeeding part can likewise stand alone. Careful writers test each statement to make sure whether it is complete *without the aid of a preceding sentence.*

---

* An appositive accompanies a grammatically equal element and qualifies or explains it. Example: Elmquist, *the secretary*, replied.

Note 2.—Modern authors sometimes write fragmentary sentences for emphasis or other special effects. (Examples: "He could not boast of his victory. Because he had not won it." "The little boy, from the top of his ladder, looked down at Renfrew. And stuck out his tongue. And winked. And gloated.") But such writing should be left to experts. The beginner, whose mastery of the sentence is yet to be proved, must not abandon grammar for uncertain ventures in style.

Exercise

Write the correct form of each item either by attaching the fragment to the main sentence or by recasting the fragment to enable it to stand alone. Add in parentheses (when any term is applicable) one of the following terms as a label of the fragment:

Prepositional phrase
Subordinate clause
Participial phrase
Infinitive phrase
Gerund phrase
Member of compound predicate
Appositive
Repeated grammatical construction
Item of series

1. The illustration and copy must be carefully arranged. If the eye is to follow the advertisement through for the message.
2. My car is that Buick. Parked by the curb.
3. Yes, the adding machine gives the total correctly. When you strike the right keys.
4. We glue together the oblong pieces of cedar. Placing the lead in the central groove.
5. Some of the neighbors are inconsiderate. Especially those whose radios keep on blaring after 10 P. M.

6. One problem is the rent. Which takes a third of their income.
7. The committee has adjourned. After wrangling for three hours.
8. Our forefathers decided upon a tariff. Both to raise revenue and to encourage manufacturing.
9. It is clear that these efforts must fail. That the public will not support them.
10. Farmers in the Dust Bowl are planting trees and grass. And are terracing their land to retain the top soil.
11. It is an old stone building. With a quaint thatch roof.
12. The periscope is an ingenious invention. Which enables us to see round a corner.
13. We have reports from men who should know. Namely, the government engineers.
14. There are two things to consider: first, the imports, which are growing. In the second place, the exports. These have declined heavily.
15. The group expects to cut down expenses. Through cooperative buying on the part of its members.
16. It is necessary to gather the mail promptly. To distribute it promptly.
17. The cabins aboard the ship are pleasant. Each being provided with a port, which, however, is closed in stormy weather.
18. The form is set rigidly. So that it will not be displaced when the concrete is thrown in.
19. The weakness lies in the screws. Where the threads soon become worn.
20. He should spend his first day in having his credits evaluated. These are likely to shrink. In consulting his adviser. And in registering for his courses.
21. The snake can open his mouth in such a way that the upper and lower jaws are perpendicular to their natural position. Thus admitting a large animal to the stomach.
22. The lever immediately flies back. When the finger ceases to press the key.

23. I had nothing but stone flies. While the trout were feeding on blue uprights.
24. We scent the clean morning air. Happy to be alive.
25. Insurance companies will not insure plate glass windows which are painted black. Because the absorption of sunlight causes the glass to crack.
26. Loss through forest fires has been reduced tremendously. On account of the thousands of miles of fire breaks, trails, roads, and telephone lines that now stretch through our wooded areas.
27. The whole garment will be marred. If you do not at once take up the dropped stitch.
28. The match splints are passed through a chemical solution. The object being to prevent an afterglow when the match has been used and blown out.
29. When you took off from Newark last night, chattering teletypes spread the word from coast to coast. Though you probably did not know this.
30. We made two long stops. One to have the carburetor adjusted and one to get lunch, besides pausing now and then to admire the view.

The Run-together Sentence

2. Avoid running sentences together with a comma or no mark between. (The joining of sentences by means of a comma is sometimes called "the comma splice." Sentences joined without the aid of any punctuation whatever may be called "telescoped sentences.")

Comma splice: The town has three railroads, it was founded when oil was discovered. [Is one statement made, or are two? Is each statement, if taken alone, complete?]

Right: The town has three railroads. It was founded when oil was discovered.

Comma splice: The speed of the car seemed slower than it really was, this was due, no doubt, to the absence of noise. [Here are three commas. The reader cannot quickly discover which one marks the great division of thought.]

Right: The speed of the car seemed slower than it really was. This was due, no doubt, to the absence of noise.

Telescoped sentences: Next we stroll past the exhibits these are roped off. [Here are two statements, each grammatically able to stand as a sentence. By fusing the two the writer denies the grammatical independence of one or the other.]

Right: Next we stroll past the exhibits. These are roped off.

Telescoped sentences: Who threw that ball it has broken my window.

Right: Who threw that ball? It has broken my window.

ote.—The normal mark between independent clauses, when a connective is lacking, is the semicolon. But commas may be substituted when three or more short coordinate clauses are parallel in structure and leave a unified impression.

Permissible: All was excitement. The ducks quacked, the pigs squealed, the dogs barked. [The general idea *excitement* gives the three clauses a certain unity.]

ow to Correct a Run-Together Sentence

Wrong: The winters are long and cold, nothing can live without shelter.

[Or]

Wrong: The winters are long and cold nothing can live without shelter.

a. Separate the statements (the best way for an inexperienced writer):

The winters are long and cold. Nothing can live without shelter.

b. Use a comma plus the conjunction *and* (*but*, *or*, or *for*):

The winters are long and cold, and nothing can live without shelter.

c. Use a semicolon:

The winters are long and cold; nothing can live without shelter.

d. Subordinate one statement to the other by

Reducing the first to a phrase:

During the long and cold winters nothing can live without shelter.

Reducing the first to a subordinate clause:

Since the winters are long and cold nothing can live without shelter.

Reducing the second to a phrase:

The winters are too long and cold for anything to live without shelter.

Reducing the second to a subordinate clause:

The winters are so long and cold that nothing can live without shelter.

EXERCISE

Correct each item twice—first by the method you regard as best, and afterward in parentheses by the best alternate method.

1. Night fell the boat drove on.
2. It's not my problem you're the one who started the thing.
3. Every boy should have a hobby, he can study bird songs or carve model ships.
4. The table needs staining besides it is of pine, not of oak.
5. You spend three years in senior high school, after that you go to junior college.
6. You may examine a spinning wheel for yourself, the museum has one.

7. You pull out the choke you get the car started.
8. Deep moisture is what counts water the lawn thoroughly rather than often.
9. Every Saturday afternoon the traffic jam is terrible that is on account of the football game.
10. Used cars may be damaged in ways not easily detected, otherwise I should advise you to buy one.
11. The traveler has seen the rope trick in India, he also tells of strange feats of levitation in Thibet.
12. The bottom of the box is then put in, it is nailed to the sides.
13. Why would no one come to help me, my feet ached and I was thirsty.
14. This city furnished many boats for the siege of Calais when these boats returned they brought the plague with them.
15. "Would you like to be counselor in a boys' camp?" asked Joe, "if you would I can get you a job."
16. His sight is too poor for him to read the papers nevertheless he gets the news over the radio.
17. The security is ample, unfortunately the rate of interest is too low.
18. You will enjoy that collection of old books you will find some rare autographs too.
19. "I shear that dog every summer," said Hinchman, "it keeps him from suffering from the heat."
20. The oil wells are distant from large cities, the pipe lines are hundreds of miles long.
21. The current sets strongly toward the opposite bank, it is hard to land here.
22. The 16-millimeter camera has made the nonprofessional motion picture possible many persons moreover are going in for color photography.
23. Stuart Chase says that our integrity is being undermined in various ways the following are some of them.
24. The courier buys the railroad tickets and makes hotel reserva-

tions for the party he also pays the tips, which otherwise would be a great nuisance.

25. If the concrete is hard the gunner cannot clean it and jackhammer men have to do the cutting with drills, this is an expensive process.

The *And* Sentence

3. Guard against the habit of thoughtlessly putting into a sentence two or more statements joined by *and*. A sentence of this type may be grammatical. Often it is needed. But when it is written merely from habit, it may contain more material than it should or may obscure the fine shades of meaning. Moreover a series of such sentences becomes monotonous. Break up carelessly written *and* sentences by separating the material into smaller units, or by subordinating lesser ideas to the main thought.

Thoughtless repetition of *and:* The second speaker had sat quietly waiting, and he was a man of a different type, and he began calmly, and the audience paid little heed to him, and after a while he became more earnest.

Better: The second speaker, who had sat quietly waiting, was a man of a different type. He began so calmly that the audience paid little heed to him. After a while he became more earnest.

"Rocking-horse" sentences: Carl wished to play the organ and he was willing to practice hard. There are many stops on the instrument and these control the tones of the pipes. Carl had to learn how to use them and this took a great deal of time.

Better: Carl, eager to play the organ, was willing to practice hard. But there are many stops which control the tones of the pipes. To learn how to use these took Carl a great deal of time.

Failure to assign values properly:* He published prose fiction, and this was then the accepted literary form, and the drama was neglected. [Here the writer joins the three ideas as equals.]

Better: He published prose fiction, which was then the accepted literary form, the drama being neglected. [There is now a diminishing series. The important idea is expressed in a main clause, a less important explanation is given in a dependent clause, and a still less important comment is made in a phrase at the end.]

Note.—*So* and *but*, like *and*, are used more than they should be to string statements together. *So*, if repeatedly employed, brings writing to the colloquial level—or below it. *But*, if repeatedly employed, makes the reader's thought "tack" or change its course too often; many good writers will not begin two successive sentences or clauses with *but*.**

Crude repetition of *so:* So the bolts are not properly tempered, so they break when the strain comes, so the whole mechanism falls to the earth, and so lives are lost.

Better: Because the bolts, not being properly tempered, break when the strain comes, the whole mechanism falls to the earth. In consequence lives are lost.

Complicated repetition of *but:* He was undoubtedly a brave man, but now he was somewhat alarmed, but he would not turn back.

Better: He was undoubtedly a brave man; though now somewhat alarmed, he would not turn back. [Or] He was undoubtedly a brave man. He was now somewhat alarmed, but he would not turn back.

Exercise

Break up the stringy or monotonously patterned sentences or reword them to subordinate the lesser ideas.

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[*] For treatments of emphasis and the ranking of ideas see **48** and **44D**.

[**] For the use of *but* in prolonged comparisons see the last example in **44C**.

1. Our salesman, Mr. Powers, has spoken very favorably of your firm, and we feel that our relations will be most pleasant, and the report of the commercial agencies is sufficient evidence of your financial standing.
2. Look, the picture is all out of focus, and so you can't see the faces distinctly, so I can barely recognize mother.
3. The house with the red tile roof is the finest in the city, and it is owned by Mr. Saunders, and he made his money speculating in land.
4. Socrates did no writing himself, and the only information we have of him we get from the writings of his pupils and from later writers, and our most reliable knowledge comes from two of these writers, Plato and Xenophon.
5. We have a large house and the rooms are rather scattered. Father has an office to himself and it is some distance from the telephone. He has installed an extension and two of us can listen at once.
6. The airplane must have been far above the earth, but the fog cut off our view, but we gazed with delight at the fog-drift around us.
7. The car arrives at the boundary and officers stop it and you are much surprised and they ask whether you have fruit or vegetation of any sort and they say you are not allowed to carry such things into the state.
8. Some years there is little rainfall, so crops are short, so prices go up, so the poor in the cities cannot buy food.
9. Lois said we would be hungry and we decided to take a lunch with us. Armand bought some bread and sliced ham and Estelle made the sandwiches. I wrapped these in wax paper and they kept very fresh.
10. Williamsburg, Virginia, had of course changed, but not so much as most towns, but John D. Rockefeller, Jr., supplied the money to restore the place as it was in the eighteenth century. However, this was not done in a gaudy way, but everybody who goes there is genuinely impressed.

Omission of Words*

4. Insert all the words necessary for completeness.

OMISSIONS FROM THE WHOLE SENTENCE

Telegraphic style: Appreciate your kind inquiry about Brooks estate. Would say land is still for sale, and no advance in price. [The meaning is clear, but the manner should be avoided both in ordinary writing and in ordinary speech.]

Better: We appreciate your kind inquiry about the Brooks estate. The land is still for sale without any advance in price.

Wrong: At taps all lights must go out. A cessation of noise and the soldier's day ends. [*A cessation of noise* lacks grammatical connection and completion.]

Right: At taps all lights must go out. With the cessation of noise the soldier's day ends. [Or, better] At taps all lights must go out and noise must cease. Thus the soldier's day ends.

Wrong: When one year old, my mother died. [The omission of subject and verb from the *when* clause gives the sentence a meaning which is not intended.]

Right: When I was one year old, my mother died.

Note 1.—Words may be omitted from a sentence if they can be supplied instantly by the reader and if the tone of the sentence is in keeping with the context.

What next? (question)—Never! (exclamation)—Hurry! Tell them to stay out. Please close the door. (request or command)—Would that I were there! (wish)—The twelfth? Yes. The eleventh if you prefer (conversation).—A pound of sugar and a quarter's worth of lard (thinking aloud).—Now for the last point (transition).—Not a living thing in sight (emphasis).

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*For a failure to repeat words when repetition is needed see **16**. For omissions which result in violations of grammar see **13C**, and (in part) **13B**. For omissions which occur on account of loose thinking see **44**.

Note 2.—Modern authors use the incomplete sentence for certain literary effects: (1) to express disjointed thought, reverie, or the undirected "stream of consciousness"; (2) to suggest sense impressions of a place or situation by supplying only the highlights; (3) to express rapid action (but short complete sentences are here often equally effective).

> A woman in a fawn-colored suit came through the doorway. For Linstowe the sight of her annihilated thirty years. A dingy station. A crowd. The approach of a train. Bells. Steam. A grinding stop. Hurry and confusion. Passengers alighting. A girl in a fawn-colored suit. A girl or an angel from heaven? The meeting of eyes. Radiant recognition. "Oh, you're Archie Linstowe."

The use of this device is permissible *after* grammatical writing has been mastered, not *before*.

UNFINISHED CONSTRUCTIONS

Wrong: A fountain pen, unless you keep other people from using it, you will soon find it is ruined. [The writer starts to make *a fountain pen* the subject of the sentence, but abruptly turns to another construction, leaving the three words suspended.]

Right: A fountain pen will soon be ruined if it is used by many people. [Or] You must keep other people from using your fountain pen, or they will soon ruin it.

Wrong: With the knowledge that, although you cannot see the document itself, you can procure a photostat. [The writer, beginning with a subordinate construction, forgets that it is subordinate.]

Right: You know [or *You have the comfort of knowing*] that, although you cannot see the document itself, you can procure a photostat.

Wrong: He was a young man who, coming from the country, with ignorance of city ways, but with plenty of determination to succeed. [The writer, taking up a subordinate construction, loses himself in still further subordination.]

Right: He was a young man who, coming from the country, was ignorant of city ways, but had plenty of determination to succeed.

Wrong: Your finger prints will identify you in any situation you may find yourself. [The writer, mindful of having used *in*, fails to see that a second *in* is required to complete the construction.]

Right: Your finger prints will identify you in any situation you may find yourself in. [Or] Your finger prints will identify you in any situation in which you may find yourself.

Wrong: This is a note to tell you that I arrived safely, and whether I left a roll of film at your house. [The writer fails to state that the purpose is both to tell and to inquire.]

Right: This is a note to tell you that I arrived safely, and to inquire whether I left a roll of film at your house.

Additional idea suggested: From the window of the train I perceived one of those unsightly structures. [The writer implies that he will tell us more about the structures, but he does not.]

Additional idea expressed: From the window of the train I perceived one of those unsightly structures which are always to be seen near a station.

Additional idea struck out as unimportant: From the window of the train I perceived an unsightly structure.

OMISSION OF MINOR ELEMENTS

Confusing omission of an article: We talked with the president and general manager. [Did we talk with one man or with two?]

Right: We talked with the president and the general manager. [Or] We talked with the officer who was both president and general manager.

End of a series not made clear*: We need food, shelter, medicine, and depend upon the Red Cross to supply them. [The reader might at first suppose that *depend* continues the series.]

Better: We need food, shelter, and medicine, and depend upon the Red Cross to supply them. [Or] We need food, shelter, and medicine; we depend upon the Red Cross to supply them.

Temporarily misleading omission of relative pronoun: At such hours there are people ringing bells disturb.

Better: At such hours there are people whom ringing bells disturb.

Incomplete modifier of past participle**: Henrietta is very astonished, and Maude is very pleased.

Better: Henrietta is very much astonished, and Maude is very well pleased.

Exercise

Supply all the words necessary to make each construction or statement complete.

1. Went next to Versailles. Stands out most vividly in my memory of places visited.
2. The ground is white with snow and still falling.
3. Turning next to Hawaii, which produces sugar and pineapples.
4. Grave unrest everywhere, and statesmen are so bewildered.
5. Corrupt laws are often the means rich people obtain the earnings of others.
6. We hardly know what to do in the condition we are.
7. Remember it's a country telephone where everybody being on the same line and with no chance to speak privately.
8. The X-ray is a machine that you can see through solid objects.

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* Where no confusion can arise, the end of a series need not be formally indicated by a conjunction.

Right: Buy stocks, bonds, mortgages.

** With the past participles of a few verbs *very* as a modifier is in itself complete.

Right: After the concert the violinist is very tired.

9. With the likelihood that the yield will be small because the buds came out in February and afterward a cold snap.
10. The hermit crab, when he gets too large for his shell, it is necessary for him to change to a bigger one.
11. You'll be buttonholed by one of those talkative agents.
12. I received letters, phone calls, cablegrams, and numerous strangers joined in the greetings.
13. This is the window which the hero escaped from prison.
14. Am nineteen years old. Have worked hard at my studies ever since entered college.
15. There are people who denounce all outsiders as scoundrels, and other foolish prejudices.
16. We watched that movie two hours, and was not worth ten minutes of our time.
17. When a boy, Mary was my best friend.
18. You greet the customers, fill tanks, radiators, tires, and wipe the windshields.
19. Receipt enclosed and hope you will favor us further orders.
20. It is a trick play which opposing teams are sure to be baffled.
21. Isn't it just too happy a reunion?
22. It was the custom that whenever a political party came into office, for the incoming men to discharge all employees of the opposite party.
23. As a rule people eat too much. This point should be noticed, and not overwork the digestive organs.
24. His name is J. P. Morgan, but no relation to the financier.
25. The soldiers call them pineapples, but are not to eat, I assure you.
26. His hair is combed, and clothed neatly.
27. The importance of a native of Yam is partly determined by the number of beads.
28. The fact that club programs are made out for a year ahead, there is no chance to arrange for another speaker now.

29. Human beings are naturally fond of a dog and makes them understand what real loyalty is.

30. The villagers question you. Inquiries about your health and the weather. After a while the practice becomes annoying.

THE CLEAR SENTENCE

Reference of Pronouns

5. Every pronoun should refer unmistakably to a definite antecedent. If the antecedent (the word to which the pronoun refers and for which it stands) is remote or hidden the pronoun may appear to refer to the *wrong* word or to hang in the air and refer to *no* word. Ordinarily the pronoun should refer to a prominent noun (or pronoun) antecedent, not to a verb or an adjective, nor to the general notion of a whole clause, nor to some noun buried in a subordinate position.

How to Correct Faulty Reference

1. {Bring the pronoun close to its antecedent.
   Make the antecedent definite and conspicuous.

Or

2. Discard the pronoun and recast the sentence.

REMOTE ANTECEDENT

Uncertain reference of *which:* He dropped the bundle in the mud which he was carrying to his mother. [The reader for a moment refers the pronoun to the wrong noun. Bring *which* nearer to its proper antecedent *bundle.*]

Right: He dropped in the mud the bundle which he was carrying to his mother.

Uncertain reference of *it:* If you want to make a good speech take your hands out of your pockets, open your mouth wide, and throw yourself into it.

Right: If you want to make a good speech take your hands out of your pockets, open your mouth wide, and throw yourself into what you are saying.

Uncertain reference of *they:* As the riders were leaving one of the men tossed some coins on the grass. A few minutes later they disappeared over the edge of the mountain. [They? The coins? Who?]

Clear: As the riders were leaving one of the men tossed some coins on the grass. A few minutes later the riders disappeared over the edge of the mountain.

Ambiguous reference of *he:* Gordon told Fred he would be dropped from the club if he did not pay his dues. [Who owes dues? Who will be dropped?]

Clear: "Fred, you will be dropped from the club," said Gordon, "if you do not pay your dues."

Also clear: "I will be dropped from the club, Fred, if I do not pay my dues," complained Gordon.

Faulty reference of *who:* The pilot once more consulted the weather report who was to fly our ship. [*Who* appears to refer to *report.*]

Right: The pilot who was to fly our ship once more consulted the weather report.

Uncertain reference of *this:* My failure in mathematics was serious. My grades in English, history, and Latin were good enough. But this brought down my average. [*This?* What *this?* Five nouns intrude between the pronoun *this* and its proper antecedent *failure.*]

Right: In English, history, and Latin I received fairly good grades. But in mathematics I received a failure. This brought down my average.

INCONSPICUOUS ANTECEDENT

(*reference to an obscure word*)

Obscure reference to a word in the possessive case: He threw a stone at the wasps' nest, which flew out angrily and stung him. [*Which* appears to refer to the conspicuous word *nest*, rather than to the hidden word *wasps* which is doing other work in the sentence.]

Right: He threw a stone at the nest, and the wasps flew out angrily and stung him.

Obscure reference to a word in a compound adjective: Cat-skin coats are warm if they are killed in winter.

Right: Cat skins make a warm fur coat if the cats are killed in winter.

BROAD ANTECEDENT

(*reference to a verb-idea or to the diffused meaning of a clause*)

Broad reference to a verb idea: All pumping of oil was ordered stopped, which was due to falling prices. [*Which* was meant to refer to the order. The reader, expecting the pronoun to refer to a noun, tries to connect *which* to *pumping* or *oil*.]

Clear [discarding the pronoun]: All pumping of oil was ordered stopped. The order was due to falling prices. [Or, better] Because of falling prices all pumping of oil was ordered stopped.

Broad reference to a clause: The tapper strikes the gong, which continues as long as the push button is pressed. [The writer intends that *which* shall refer to the entire preceding clause, but the reference is intercepted by the word *gong*.]

Clear: [Supplying a definite antecedent]: The tapper strikes the gong, a process which continues as long as the push button is pressed. [Or, abandoning the pronoun] The tapper strikes the gong as long as the push button is pressed.

Possible Exception.—It cannot be maintained that a pronoun must *always* have one definite word for its antecedent. Many of the best English authors occasionally use a pronoun to refer to a clause. But the reference must always be clear. Example: "He pays us whatever our products will sell for in the market. This seems fair enough."

LOST ANTECEDENT

Dangling reference to a word not expressed at all: When the baby is through drinking milk it should be disconnected and put in boiling water. [The central idea in the reader's mind is *baby*. The central idea in the writer's mind is *milk-bottle*. The writer must take the trouble to say *bottle*.]

Right: When the baby is through drinking milk the bottle should be taken apart and put in boiling water.

IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS

Note 1.—Impersonal constructions must be used with caution. "It is raining" is correct, although *it* has no antecedent. We desire that the antecedent shall be vague, impersonal. But unnecessary use of the indefinite *it*, *you*, or *they* should be avoided.

Faulty: It says in the paper that fifty men were laid off.
Right: The newspaper says that fifty men were laid off.

Not complimentary to the reader: You aren't hanged nowadays for stealing.
Right: No one is hanged nowadays for stealing.

Faulty: They are noted for their tact in France.
Right: The French are noted for their tact.

DOUBLE REFERENCE

Note 2.—Avoid double reference—a puzzle in which the same pronoun refers in quick succession to two different antecedents.

Wrong: The feet of Chinese girls were bandaged so tightly when they were babies that they could not grow. [*They* refers successively to girls and feet, whereas it should be used to refer unmistakably to one antecedent only.]

Right: In China the feet of a girl baby were bandaged so tightly that they could not grow.

Wrong: As long as the sun shines it is warm enough, but as soon as it goes behind a cloud, it is cold.

Right: As long as the sun shines the weather is warm enough, but it turns cold as soon as the sun goes behind a cloud.

Exercise

Make the reference of the pronoun clear either (1) by bringing the pronoun and its antecedent together or (2) by substituting for the pronoun a more definite word or words.

1. There was a sooty smudge on the living room wall over the fireplace that I could not remove.
2. He gave me a receipt for the money which he told me to keep.
3. After you shoot it it says to clean the rifle thoroughly.
4. The bankers have taken over control of the motion pictures which means their finish.
5. The people begin their celebration about midnight which continues throughout the next day.
6. I received the pearls yesterday by registered mail which I left in your store on November eleventh.
7. This magazine contains styles by several leading artists that are extremely sensational.
8. After a man has failed in one business, it is no sign he will fail in another.
9. The working bees bring honey to the hives. These are armed with stings.
10. Renters never stayed long in the flat next to Bill Jones's house who was called the worst boy in town.
11. Sometimes cane syrup is mixed with the maple syrup which reduces the value of the product.
12. The Y. M. C. A. buildings have well equipped gymnasiums and swimming tanks in order to strengthen their bodies.
13. She heard footsteps on the stair and looked over the railing to see them.
14. Many of the so-called safe places may be dangerous: in Oklahoma it may be cyclones; in California it may be earthquakes; in Montana it may be blizzards.

15. Hold the test tube over the Bunsen burner, which is the next step in the experiment.
16. He was delighted with the horseback ride, which animal he had been familiar with in his childhood on the farm.
17. Perhaps some of his ancestors were of the nobility, but it is certain that Mike displays none of these qualities.
18. We heard a voice through the window above our heads which told us to enter.
19. The carbon must be removed from pig iron to make pure steel, and that is done by terrific heat.
20. Every child has a tendency to use its imagination, and its value in the future depends upon the training it receives when it is cultivated.

Dangling Participles and Other Dangling Modifiers*

6. When a modifier implies a special actor, place near it the word that names the actor. Otherwise it may appear to hang in the air or "dangle," attaching itself to no word. It may even, for some readers, appear to attach itself to the *wrong* word.

Dangling participial phrase: Coming in on the train, the high

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* Definitions: A form derived from a verb but used as a noun or a modifier is called a *verbal*. Verbal forms introduced by *to* are called infinitives. Verbal forms in *ing* (and the past form ending in *d*, *t*, *n*, etc.), when used as adjectives, are called participles.

ACTIVE	PRESENT:	*Watching*, he saw a light.
	PAST:	*Having watched* until dawn, Falk was tired.
PASSIVE	PRESENT:	*Being watched*, the thieves could not escape.
	PAST:	*Watched* closely, the prince became angry.

Verbal forms in *ing*, when used as nouns, are called gerunds.

Our *watching* was of no use.

After *having watched* for an hour, we went home.

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school building is seen. [Is the building coming in? If not, who is? *Coming* implies a special actor. Make that actor the subject.]

Right: Coming in on the train, one sees the high school building.

Also right: As one comes in on the train he sees the high school building.

How to Correct a Dangling Phrase at the Beginning of a Sentence

1. Place near it the right word for it to modify [make this word the subject of the sentence].

Or

2. Change the phrase to a subordinate clause.

Dangling infinitive phrase: To run efficiently, a competent mechanic should check your car every thousand miles or so. [What is to run? The *mechanic?* The *car?* Make *car* the subject.]

Right: To run efficiently, your car should be checked by a competent mechanic every thousand miles or so.

Also right: If your car is to run efficiently, a competent mechanic should check it every thousand miles or so.

Dangling participial phrase: Having taken our seats, the umpire announced the batteries. [Who took the seats? Was it *the umpire* or *we?* Make this actor the subject.]

Right: Having taken our seats, we heard the umpire announce the batteries.

Also right: When we had taken our seats, the umpire announced the batteries.

Dangling phrase containing a gerund: On tasting the gooseberry pie, his frown grew deeper.

Right: On tasting the gooseberry pie, he frowned deeply.

Also right: When he tasted the gooseberry pie, his frown grew deeper.

Dangling phrase containing a gerund: In talking to Phelps he told me that you intend to buy a car.

Better: In talking to Phelps I learned that you intend to buy a car.

Also right: When I talked to Phelps he told me that you intend to buy a car.

Dangling Modifier at the End of a Sentence

Dangling gerund phrase at the end of a sentence: The address was concluded by reciting a passage from Wordsworth.

Better: The speaker concluded his address by reciting a passage from Wordsworth.

Also right: The address was concluded by the recitation of a passage from Wordsworth.

Dangling participial phrase at the end of a sentence: The horse had only one good eye, caused by an encounter with a wire fence. [The *good eye* was not *caused* by the encounter.]

Right: One eye of the horse was blind from an encounter with a wire fence.

Uncertain participial phrase at the end of a sentence: The coach rebuked the runner, angered by this conduct. [Move the phrase to a position where it will not attach itself to the wrong word.]

Better: Angered by this conduct, the coach rebuked the runner.

Dangling elliptical clause*: My shoestring always breaks when hurrying to the office at eight o'clock.

Better: My shoestring always breaks when I am hurrying to the office at eight o'clock.

Dangling prepositional phrase: At the age of nine, my parents moved to New York.

Better: At the age of nine, I moved with my parents to New York.

Also right: When I was nine years old, my parents moved to New York.

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* A sentence or a part of a sentence from which words are omitted is said to be elliptical.

Apparent Exceptions to Rule 6

(not real exceptions, since these verbals do not imply a special actor)

Participles used in directive expressions (to summarize, abate, etc.) do not and need not refer to the subject. They qualify the whole sentence.

Taking everything into consideration, the investment is a good one.

Generally speaking, women live longer than men do.

Gerund phrases indicating general action (not the action of a special agent) need not refer to the subject.

In gardening, common sense is the first requirement.

Exercise

Correct each dangling participial phrase or other dangling modifier.

Make the implied actor the subject. Or

Turn the dangling element into an adverb clause.

1. Coming in on the plane, the river makes a great circle around New Orleans.
2. The trout soon began to bite, after changing our bait to grasshoppers.
3. Sitting tense in gallery, parquet, and box seats, the great actor spoke the celebrated lines.
4. The eight o'clock whistle blew while halfway down the stairs.
5. Coming into the dining room, a huge stove almost blocks one's way.
6. He is absent today, caused by eating too much caramel pie.
7. Stumbling along on crutches, a child on roller skates ran into him and knocked him down.
8. Over the paper and kindling a few small chunks of coal are scattered, taking care not to choke the draft.
9. After simmering twenty minutes, you mix the melted marshmallow with the pineapple and cream and freeze until solid.
10. The rear of the store was bright and pleasant, caused by a skylight.

11. After reaching the other side in a small boat, a pair of horses was used to drag the heavy seine across the lake.
12. Only one house remained standing in the village, caused by a disastrous fire.
13. Having barely finished dressing for company, the furnace decided to go out.
14. The doorbell rang when hoeing weeds in the back yard.
15. Being tired and hungry from a day on the trail our cabin was a welcome sight.
16. This town draws the trade from a radius of twenty miles, thus accounting for the large volume of business.
17. Facing straight ahead and southeast, the Squaw can be seen, and turning around, the red rock formation called the Papoose.
18. Radium is very difficult to get, making it the most valuable mineral.
19. Not being gifted with a singing voice, the phonograph came in handy in my schoolroom.
20. To reduce its weight, the engine is a mere skeleton built of the lightest and strongest materials.

The odd-numbered sentences may be corrected in both of the ways mentioned at the beginning of the exercise.

Unnecessary Shift in Number, Tense, Voice, Mode

7. Do not needlessly shift number, tense, voice, mode, or subject. Keep one point of view until there is a reason for changing.

Faulty change in number: *One* should save *their* money.
Right: *People* should save *their* money. [Both plural. Or]
Right: *One* should save *his* money. [Both singular.]

Faulty change in number: Take your *umbrella* with you. *They* will be needed today.
Right: Take your *umbrella* with you. You will need *it* today.

Faulty change in tense: When he *heard* the news, he *hurries* down town and *buys* a paper.

Right: When he *heard* the news, he *hurried* down town and *bought* a paper.

Faulty change in tense: Freedom means that a man may conduct his affairs as he *pleases* so long as he *did* not injure anybody else.

Right: Freedom means that a man may conduct his affairs as he *pleases* so long as he *does* not injure anybody else.*

Unnecessary shift of subject: Mark Twain was born in the West, but the East was his home in later years.

Right: Mark Twain was born in the West, but lived in the East in his later years. [Or] The West was the birthplace of Mark Twain, and the East was his home in his later years.

Unnecessary shift from active to passive voice: A careful driver can go fifteen miles on a gallon of gasoline, and at the same time very little lubricating oil is used.

Right: A careful driver can go fifteen miles on a gallon of gasoline, and at the same time use very little lubricating oil.

Unnecessary shift in point of view: As you stand on the sandstone cliffs, a small valley lies below them.

Better: As you stand on the sandstone cliffs, you look down upon a small valley. [Or] Below the sandstone cliffs lies a small valley.

Unnecessary shift in mode:** By making every letter from our office courteous and correct we *obtain* the respect of our associates and *would be* in a position to receive whatever business they *had.* [*Obtain* should be followed by *are* and *have* or *should be* and *may have.*]

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* A change of tense within a sentence is desirable and necessary in certain instances, for which see **12A.**

** Mode (often called mood) indicates the tone of an assertion—whether affirming, commanding, supposing.

The indicative mode asserts: Dogs *bark*. They *are listening*.

The imperative mode urges or commands: *Go! Take* your dog out of here.

The subjunctive mode supposes a condition contrary to fact: I wish I *were* a bird.

Unnecessary shift in mode: An automobile *should be* kept in good working order so that its life *is* lengthened. [*Should be* is properly followed by *may be.*]

Unnecessary shift in subject and mode:

How to Learn to Drive a Car

I. In teaching people to drive I first explain the controls . . .

II. Next you must . . . [*Shifts mode from indicative to imperative.*]

III. The third step is . . . [*Shifts from the imperative mode to an impersonal method of expression.*]

In telling how to do or make something, definitely assume one of these three points of view and keep it consistently:

1. Personal—Tell what you did (past tense) or what you customarily do (present tense), using the pronoun *I:* "First I take . . . Next I prepare . . . Finally I . . . "
2. Imperative—instruct some one: "First take . . . Then prepare . . . Finally do this . . . "
3. Impersonal—explain what is to be done, what should be done, or what one should do: "The first thing to do is to take . . . The next thing is to prepare . . . The last thing is to . . . ."

Exercise

Rewrite the following sentences, avoiding unnecessary shift in person, number, voice, tense, mode, or subject.

1. Suddenly we saw the big boat in the bend of the river, and the chugging of the engine could be heard.
2. The squirrel would eat anything, but nuts were much preferred.
3. Each province has some expressions purely their own.
4. Shylock is of the ungenerous type, while Antonio was lavish in helping his friends.
5. If there is a person who has not read about Tom Sawyer, I pity them; they have missed much indeed.

6. Lorry being new to storekeeping, many problems faced him.
7. To lay a fire successfully one must have paper or dry leaves on the bottom. Next you place small kindling. I finish the pile with two logs a few inches apart and a third log on top. This should be done to create a draft.
8. Today no one could carry on a business unless they advertise.
9. The bank will lend you the money for a definite time, and a renewal could afterward be secured by you.
10. At the cafeteria people have their choice of food, while at a boarding house you have to take what they give you.
11. He had to take down speeches word for word, and of course shorthand was used by him.
12. After the big show I strolled into the menagerie tent. The animals were greatly enjoyed by me.
13. The water of the Great Salt Lake is so heavy with brine that one cannot sink in it. They are buoyed up, but the swimmer's feet come to the top and my head went down.
14. The material used in the house is concrete, and we thought that a rather uninviting appearance resulted from its use.
15. Cut bread in strips one inch by one inch by three inches. I spread them with melted butter, sugar, and cinnamon. These strips should be broiled until brown on all sides.

Parallelism

A reader's expectation is that uniform structure shall accompany uniform ideas (so that a departure from uniformity may readily indicate a change of thought). If ideas are so closely related as to be linked by *and*, *or*, or *but*, they should not be allowed to have unnecessary or disturbing differences in form.

8. Sentence elements that are parallel in thought should be made parallel in form. If one is an infinitive the other should be; if one is an adjective the other should be; if one is a verb the other should be, and so on.

Faulty shift from gerund to infinitive: Riding is sometimes better exercise than to walk.
Right (both gerunds): Riding is sometimes better exercise than walking.
Also right (both infinitives): To ride is sometimes better exercise than to walk.

Shift from adjective to verb: He was red-faced, awkward, and had a disposition to eat everything on the table. [The third element is like the others in thought and should have the same form.]
Right: He had a red face, an awkward manner, and a disposition to eat everything on the table.
Also right: He was red-faced, awkward, and voracious.

Faulty: When you have mastered the operation of shifting gears and after a little practice you will be a good driver.
Right: When you have mastered the operation of shifting gears and have had a little practice you will be a good driver.
Also right: After you master the gears and have a little practice, you will be a good driver.

Faulty: These are the duties of the president:
(a) To preside at regular meetings,
(b) He calls special meetings,
(c) Appointment of committees.
Right: These are the duties of the president:
(a) To preside at regular meetings,
(b) To call special meetings,
(c) To appoint committees.
Also right: These are the duties of the President:
(a) He presides at regular meetings.
(b) He calls special meetings.
(c) He appoints committees.

Faulty: Frazier had two desires, of which the first was for money; in the second place, he wanted fame.

Right: Frazier had two desires, of which the first was for money and the second for fame. [Or] He had two desires: in the first place he wanted money; in the second, fame.

Faulty omission of articles: She belongs not only to the Baptist Church but also to the Woman's Club, Teachers' Club, and the Welfare Council. [Either repeat the article before every item or let the first article serve for all.]

Right: She belongs not only to the Baptist Church but also to the Woman's Club, the Teachers' Club, and the Welfare Council.

Also right: She belongs not only to the Baptist Church but also to the Woman's Club, Teachers' Club, and Welfare Council.

CORRELATIVES

(*conjunctions used in pairs*)

both . . . and	*neither . . . nor*	*not only . . . but*
either . . . or	*whether . . . or*	*not only . . . but also*

Correlatives should be followed by elements parallel in form.

Faulty position of correlatives: He was not only courteous to rich customers but also to poor ones. [The phrases intended to be balanced against each other are *to rich customers* and *to poor ones*. As the sentence stands it is the word *courteous* that is balanced against *to poor ones*.]

Right: He was courteous not only to rich customers but also to poor ones.

Faulty: I talked both with Miller and Brown. [One conjunction is followed by a preposition and the other by a noun.]

Right: I talked with both Miller and Brown. [Or] I talked both with Miller and with Brown.

Note 1.—Repeat a connective (like *to*, *in*, *of*, *that*) whenever repetition is necessary for clearness.

Preposition to be repeated: He was regarded as a hero by all who had known him at school, and especially his old schoolmates.
Right: He was regarded as a hero *by* all who had known him at school, and especially *by* his old schoolmates.

Sign of the infinitive to be repeated: He wishes to join with those who love freedom and justice, and end needless suffering.
Right: He wishes *to* join with those who love freedom and justice, and *to* end needless suffering.

Conjunction to be repeated: He explained that the strikers asked only a fair hearing, since their contentions were misunderstood; were by no means in favor of the violent measures to which the public had grown accustomed; and had no desire to resort to bloodshed and the destruction of property.
Right: He explained *that* the strikers asked only a fair hearing, since their contentions were misunderstood; *that* they were by no means in favor of the violent measures to which the public had grown accustomed; and *that* they had no desire to resort to bloodshed and the destruction of property.

Note 2.—Avoid misleading parallelism—elements which *appear* to be parallel in thought but *are not.*

Confusing: He was admired for his knowledge of science, and for his taste for art, and for this I too honor him. [The last *for* gives a false parallelism to unlike thoughts.]
Better: He was admired for his scientific knowledge and for his artistic taste. I honor him for both these qualities.

Misleading: The program is given at two o'clock, and at four o'clock, and at six o'clock the doors are closed.
Better: The program is given at two o'clock, and at four o'clock, but at six o'clock the doors are closed.

Note 3.—Detailed parallelism is not always possible.

Right: He always walked slowly and with a limp. [*Limpingly* would not be idiomatic.] You may answer either orally or in writing. We shall die ashore, aboard ship, or wherever the heavens decree. In the party were a Congressman, a justice of the Supreme Court, and a man whom I did not know. We arrived very dirty and covered with mosquito bites.

EXERCISE

Give parallel structure to elements which are parallel in thought.

1. To send a full report by mail is better than if you dispatch a telegram.
2. He has two incurable habits: the first is for smoking, and he uses profane language.
3. Mayme inquired both of Audrey and Jean.
4. Obstinacy is the state of being either stubborn or of perseverance.
5. He is light complexioned, has dark hair, blue eyes, and heavy set.
6. I predict murder, or at least he will be nothing less than a thief.
7. This new cleaner is useful in the shops, office, and in the home.
8. Have you ever cut a juicy, tender slice of ham, smoothing mustard over it, then taking a hearty mouthful and munched?
9. He either must decide to vote with us or against us.
10. Women employees do not take criticism as an impersonal matter but against them personally.
11. Lebo is seven miles to the west and east eleven miles lies Malvern.
12. The average person is neither physically perfect or a physical wreck.
13. Our town would be better off with a new water plant than any park which selfish landowners want.
14. The value of exercise does not consist in developing large muscles nor accomplishing athletic feats but by the attainment of physical poise.
15. The main lodge has a reading room, dining room, game room, and a dance hall.
16. He is a star on the tennis court and in track and playing basketball, but he is a dud at the game of football.

17. Miss Coons is better qualified for teaching than any other vocation.
18. The room both contains an old-fashioned fireplace and it is heated by steam.
19. The ordinance sets apart money for three purposes: to plant young trees in the park, improvement of the lighting system, a new reservoir must be constructed.
20. In the laboratory he learns to tackle the most difficult problems, rather than merely absorbing information which is easy.

Coherence in General

To cohere means to stick or hold firmly together. A piece of writing has *coherence* when it has order and connection—a close and natural sequence of parts.

9. Every part of a sentence should have a clear and natural connection with the adjoining part. A modifier should be placed reasonably near the word it modifies, and separated from other words which it might wrongly appear to modify.

MISPLACED ADVERB

(*only*, *ever*, *scarcely*, *hardly*, etc.)

Illogical: I *only* need a few dollars. [The faulty position of *only* makes the sentence appear to mean "I do not want money; I only need it." *Only* should refer to *few*.]
Right: I need *only* a few dollars.

Illogical: I don't *ever* intend to go there again.
Right: I don't intend *ever* to go there again. [Or] I intend *never* to go there again.

Illogical: She has the sweetest voice I *nearly* ever heard. [The faulty arrangement makes *nearly* modify *ever* rather than *sweetest*.]
Right: She has *nearly* [or *almost*] the sweetest voice I ever heard.

SQUINTING CONSTRUCTION

Confusing: I told him when the time came I would do it. [*When the time came* is said to "squint" because the reader cannot tell whether it looks forward to the end of the sentence or backward to the beginning.]

Right: When the time came, I told him I would do it. [Or] I told him I would do it when the time came.

SPLIT CONSTRUCTION

Split comparison: She is as old if not older than he.
Improved: She is as old as he, if not older.

Split infinitive*: *to* immediately *go* . . . *to* carefully *observe* . . .
Improved: *to go* immediately . . . *to observe* carefully . . .

FAULTY COORDINATION

Faulty: She looked up as he approached and smoothed her hair. [Which two words does *and* connect? Does the writer mean He *approached* and *smoothed* or *she looked* (as he approached) *and smoothed?*]

Right: She looked up and smoothed her hair as he approached. [Or] As he approached she looked up and smoothed her hair.

NEEDLESS SEPARATION OF RELATED MODIFIERS

Faulty: If both of us can go we'll have some grand skating if the weather clears.

Better: If the weather clears and both of us can go, we'll have some grand skating.

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* A split infinitive, though not desirable in itself, is preferable to a strained or artificial rearrangement of the sentence. A lightly stressed adverb which cannot naturally be placed elsewhere than in the infinitive is tolerable to most persons. A heavily stressed adverb should be placed after the infinitive or omitted.

PLACING MODIFIERS EARLY

Note 1.—Do not allow modifiers to pile up and cause confusion at the end of a sentence.

Distribute unrelated modifiers, instead of bunching them: I found a heap of snow on my bed in the morning which had drifted in through the window. [Subject verb—object—place—time—explanation.]

Right: In the morning I found on my bed a heap of snow which had drifted in through the window. [Time—subject verb—place—object—explanation.]

An adjectival modifier must cling close to the word it modifies. The relative clause *which had drifted in through the window* is adjectival. It must follow closely after the noun *snow.*

An adverbial modifier of time or place need not always cling close to the verb; it may very well come first in the sentence, far from the verb it modifies. (Since there is usually only *one* verb in a statement, there is little danger that an *adverbial* phrase of time or place may attach itself to the wrong word.) Elsewhere in this book you are urged to place adverbial modifiers first in the sentence, both to overcome the lazy human tendency to "tack on" details at the end and to secure variety in style (see **49B**).

Thus it cannot be said that a modifier must always immediately adjoin the word it modifies. But we can give this general rule: *Place a modifier where it cannot appear to modify the wrong word.*

Exercise

Recast the following sentences to make them coherent.

1. He was gazing at the landscape which he had painted with a smiling face.
2. This car is as economical as, if not more economical than, any other car in the same price bracket to run.
3. She has nearly typed the entire report this morning.

4. The salesgirl who was very polite usually snapped at customers all day.
5. Mr. Bates said he would be back in a minute two hours ago.
6. The boys switched off the flashlight as a policeman turned the corner and shrank back into the shadows.
7. Take care to not overheat the room.
8. He needs encouragement to do his work very much during the spring.
9. We received little or none at all experience in composing letters.
10. The variation in the water level between high and low tides is several feet in many places.
11. The girl near the stove with the white sweater on is the one from Kansas City.
12. Some complain that if they only had time, they could be better educated men and women if they only had good books at hand which they might read.
13. She managed to never cook a meal without burning something when company was coming.
14. We decided to once and for all give him a scare he wouldn't forget.
15. Farmers have to wait until it dries off when it rains on these clay roads before they can get through.
16. Borchers came to my office after receiving my letter in a hurry.
17. The young author read the review of the novel he had written for the seventh time.
18. An ostrich if one ever hid its head in the sand was never seen doing so.
19. I have never cared for plays written in verse for several reasons.
20. After about three hours of tinkering with the car, that seemed like ages, he finally got it to run.

GRAMMAR

Grammar* has to do with the uses and relations of words in a sentence. It does not require a knowledge of complicated rules. It requires, above all, the ability to see just what a problem or situation involves.

One of the stumbling blocks to grammatical speech or writing is case. Case is the relation of a substantive (noun or pronoun) to other words in a sentence as shown by inflectional form or position.**

Case

All the serious errors in case are caused by connecting a noun or pronoun with the wrong word or words. If you know your way about in a sentence well enough to relate every noun or pronoun with the element it belongs with, you will have little difficulty with case.

10. Give to each noun or pronoun the case required by its relation to the other words in the sentence.

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* For an explanation of the terms of grammar see **14.**

** In English there are three cases; that is, a substantive may be used as subject, object, or possessor. All nouns and a few pronouns (such as *it*, *you*, *which*) have the same form for subject and object. Most pronouns have separate forms for subject and object (*I*, *me; they*, *them*). Some pronouns have two forms as possessors (*my*, *mine; their*, *theirs; your*, *yours*); a few have no possessive form (*this*, *these*, *which*).

Pronouns, being much more fully inflected than nouns, are more frequently misused as to case.

A. PRONOUNS WITH FINITE VERBS*

Seek the verb. It may be remote; it may be hiding behind a conjunction or another verb; it may be understood rather than expressed. But if it is either present or implied, find it. Then decide whether the pronoun must be its subject, its object, or its predicate complement.

Wrong: Dave and me heard him. [Can the pronoun connect itself with a finite verb? Yes; it is one of the subjects of *heard*. But *me* is not a proper form for a subject. Take the two subjects separately: *Dave* heard him; *I* heard him.]
Right: Dave and I heard him.

Wrong: Such conduct disgusts you and I. [We have taught ourselves to follow *you and* with *I*. We should when both the pronouns are subjects. But here they are objects. Disgusts *you*. Disgusts *me*.]
Right: Such conduct disgusts you and me.

Wrong: Was it her? Was it them? It is him. The only contributors have been him and his mother. [Each pronoun (except *it*) is a predicate complement after a finite form of the verb *to be*. Since this verb does not express action, it never takes an object; it can merely link substantives together. Thus its predicate complement is always in the same case as the subject.]
Right: Was it she? Was it they? It is he. The only contributors have been he and his mother.

Wrong: The man whom they believed was the cause of the trouble left the country. [A parenthetical expression like *he says, we think, they believe, you would suppose* does not affect the case of the preceding pronoun. The pronoun takes the same case as if the expression were omitted. Here the pronoun is the subject of *was.*]

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* A finite verb is a verb in one of the forms which can make a complete statement about the subject.

Finite verbs: I *hear* a guitar. They *saw* the wreck. You *have caught* the fish.

A verbal (infinitive, participle, or gerund) is a verb in one of the forms which cannot make a complete statement.

Infinitive: I did not expect *to hear* a guitar.
Participle: *Seeing* the wreck, they joined the rescuers.
Gerund: Your *having caught* the fish pleases me.

Right: The man who they believed was the cause of the trouble left the country.

Wrong: Whom do you suppose made us a visit?
Right: Who do you suppose made us a visit?*

Wrong: Punish whomever is guilty. [The pronoun is the subject of *is*. The object of *punish* is the entire clause *whoever is guilty.*]
Right: Punish whoever is guilty.

Wrong: The mystery as to whom had rendered him this service remained. [The pronoun is the subject of *had rendered*. The object of the preposition *to* is the entire clause *who had rendered him this service.*]
Right: The mystery as to who had rendered him this service remained.

Wrong: The boys in Grade B are as old as us. [With what element is the pronoun related? Apparently with *as*. It seems to be the object of *as*. But *as* is not a preposition and cannot take an object. *As* is a conjunction and is followed by an uncompleted clause. The pronoun is the subject of that uncompleted clause.]
Right: The boys in Grade B are as old as we [are old].

Wrong: Loren is taller than her. [*Than* is a conjunction, not a preposition.]

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* Note that in speech or informal writing the interrogative pronoun *who* often begins a sentence when strict grammar requires *whom.*

Informal, but allowable: Who did you see? Who have you been looking for?

Right: Loren is taller than she [is tall].*

Exercise

1. She dresses fully as well as (I, me).
2. (Who, Whom) do you think would take a plane up in weather like that?
3. Foster has just told me (who, whom) you saw.
4. It's all according to (who, whom) you have for umpire.
5. You can preside as gracefully as (she, her).
6. There sat Allerby, (who, whom) I was told later was an old hand at chess.
7. In water of that depth I could go faster wading than (he, him) swimming.
8. It must have been (she, her) who reported you and (I, me).
9. Surely you and (he, him) can get along with each other.
10. Is it (they, them) who are hardier than (we, us)?

B. PRONOUNS WITH INFINITIVES

Right: I wanted him to go. [An infinitive cannot assert action and hence cannot take a subject. But it implies that something is at least capable of action and hence it has a latent or assumed subject. This assumed subject is put in the objective case. Here *him to go* is the group object of *wanted*, and *him* is the assumed subject of *to go*.]

Right: *Whom* do you wish *to be* your leader? [*Whom* is the assumed subject of the infinitive *to be*.**]

Right: They supposed the larger man to be him. [*To be* is not an action verb. But a predicate complement after *to be* is in the same case as the assumed subject. Here *him* is in the same case as *man*.]

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* Sometimes the conjunction *as* or *than* is followed by an objective pronoun. In such instances the pronoun is not the object of the conjunction. It is the object of the verb of the uncompleted clause.

Right: He trusts you as much as [he trusts] me.
Right: I like his brother better than [I like] him.

** *Who* would be allowable in informal writing. See the footnote on page **48**.

Exercise

1. Do you expect (we, us) to walk?
2. That's the man (who, whom) I should like to be.
3. Are they waiting for (I, me) to ask (she, her)?
4. (Who, Whom) do you take (he, him) to be?
5. I shouldn't care to be (he, him).

C. PRONOUNS WITH PREPOSITIONS OR IN EXPRESSIONS CONTAINING APPOSITIVES

Wrong: That seems incredible to you and I. [The object of a preposition is in the objective case.]
Right: That seems incredible to you and me.

Wrong: Some of we fellows went fishing. [The pronoun is the object of *of*.]
Right: Some of us fellows went fishing.

Wrong: All have bought tickets—him, her, and us. [The pronouns are appositives of the subject, *all*. They must agree with it in case.]
Right: All have bought tickets—he, she, and we.

Wrong: Let's you and I go. [You and I, as appositives of *us*, must agree with it in case.]
Right: Let's you and me go.

Exercise

1. We shall have gay times, you and (I, me).
2. All the people except (she, her) and her escort were admiring the stained glass windows.
3. You might think the guilt lay between (he, him) and (I, me).
4. One of the sorority girls, perhaps (she, her) who had sent the invitation, admitted us.

5. (We, Us) three boys—Harold, Lonnie, and (I, me)—hid in the alley.

D. PRONOUNS AND NOUNS AS POSSESSIVES*

Illogical possessive: The pole's top is gilded. [Do not, ordinarily, make an inanimate object a possessor. Use an *of*-phrase instead.**]
Right: The top of the pole is gilded.

Illogical possessive: The man's denunciation was uncalled for. [Do not let the receiver of an action appear to be the actor.***]
Right: The denunciation of the man was uncalled for.

Precise use of the possessive often requires that you distinguish between a gerund and a participle. A gerund is a verb used as a noun. A participle is a verb used as an adjective. See examples in the footnote on page 47, where *seeing* (a participle) modifies *they* and *having caught* (a gerund) is the subject of *pleases*.

Right: Is there any criticism of Arthur's going? [The criticism would be of the going, not of Arthur. Hence the object of *of* is *going* (a gerund). *Arthur*'s modifies *going*. A noun or pronoun which modifies a gerund takes the possessive case.]

Right: We regret your being sick. [What is regretted? Not you, but the sickness. *Being sick* is a gerund—the object of the verb.]

Right: After a long search for Edzell, I caught sight of him buying a shotgun. [Why not say *of his buying?* Because this would throw chief attention to the act of purchasing. We wish to throw chief attention to the person himself. Therefore we make the pronoun, not the verbal, the object of *of*. We make *buying* a participle which modifies the pronoun.]

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* For writing the possessive form see **27B.**

** But possessives may be used in idioms expressing time (*the day's work, two months' wages, a month's notice*), measure (*a dollar's worth, two dollars' worth, a cable's length*), or personification (*for mercy's sake, the heart's desire, the world's progress*).

*** Compare use of the possessive for the actor himself.
Right: The man's denunciation of his enemies was venomous.

Exercise

1. The (state's governor, governor of the state) is a business man.
2. Yes, I know of (his, him) having been there.
3. A (man, man's) doing dirty work should wear overalls.
4. A (man, man's) doing dirty work may be to his credit.
5. The (trouble's root, root of the trouble) is the (task's hardness, hardness of the task).

EXERCISE

1. Is that (he, him) sitting at the desk?
2. Such a thing would be unfair to (we, us) juniors.
3. (Who, Whom) do you suppose the best marksman?
4. (Who, Whom) do you suppose is the best marksman?
5. The thought of (men, men's) driving cars would have taken our breath.
6. The thoughts of (men, men's) driving cars are often reckless.
7. (My, Me) lighting that match caused the gas to explode.
8. The man (who, whom) she sang that duet with has a good voice.
9. You as well as (she, her) must listen to the radio.
10. It must have been (he, him) (who, whom) I spoke with.
11. He wore the Santa Claus whiskers, not (I, me).
12. They were gypsies (who, whom) Bertram had allowed to settle on his land.
13. Would you think that two people, the proofreader and (he, him) both, could overlook such a misprint?
14. (His, Him) having been caricatured by the cartoonist led to (his, him) suing the paper for damages.
15. (We, Our, Us), having a guide, felt no further concern. But (we, our, us) having a guide was sheer accident.

Agreement in Number*

To make a pronoun and its antecedent, or a verb and its subject, agree in number requires constant watchfulness and often close reasoning.

First, you must find the exact antecedent, the exact subject. But the antecedent or the subject, even when you have found it, never *shows* a mistake in number. It merely *causes* that mistake. To see the mistake *showing*, you must find the pronoun which refers to the antecedent or the verb which accompanies the subject. Thus you must study the cause of the mistake in one place; you must make the correction in another.

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* There are relatively few problems of agreement in person or gender. The following examples cover most of them.

Person

Wrong: One can't let them out of your sight. [Person should not be changed needlessly.]

Right: One can't let them out of his sight. [Or] You can't let them out of your sight.

Correct, but awkward: You or she *comes* every day on *her* errand of mercy. [When alternate subjects or alternate antecedents differ in person, the verb or pronoun agrees with the nearer.]

Sentence recast: Every day you come, or she does, on an errand of mercy.

Gender

Correct, but awkward: There are men and deeds which we cannot forget. [When two antecedents differ in gender, the pronoun agrees with the nearer.]

Improved by use of a pronoun which can refer both to persons and to things: There are men and deeds that we cannot forget. [Or, as is often possible, strike out the pronoun.]

Right: A human being must make his choice. [The masculine pronoun is used to refer to common gender.]

Awkward: A man or woman must make his choice. [The subject emphasizes two genders.]

Awkwardly accurate (used chiefly in legal documents): A man or woman must make his or her choice.

Sentence recast: A human being—man or woman—must make his choice. [The subject emphasizes common gender.]

There is yet another difficulty. An antecedent or a subject which is singular in form may have a plural meaning, or at least a plural implication.* In such instances grammarians once decided number on the basis of form alone. They now frequently decide it upon the basis of meaning. But the meaning is not always clear, and usage is still somewhat unsettled.

11. Give a pronoun (or pronominal adjective) the same number as its antecedent. Give a verb the same number as its subject. If awkwardness would result, recast the sentence.

A. GROSS IGNORANCE OR INATTENTIVENESS IN GENERAL

Number of the subject unheeded: He don't get up early on Sunday morning. [*Don't* equals *do not.*]
Right: He doesn't get up early on Sunday morning.

Number of the subject unheeded: We was badly scared.
Right: We were badly scared.

Number of the antecedent unheeded: Hardly any *people* care to drive down town because *he* wastes so much time parking.
Right: Hardly any people care to drive down town because they waste so much time parking.

Crude: I never did like these sort of post card. [In *these sort* or *those kind* the pronominal adjective agrees IN THOUGHT with a plural noun (expressed or unexpressed) which follows, but IN GRAMMAR it modifies *sort* or *kind.*]
Improved: I never did like this sort of post card. [Or, better] I never did like post cards of this sort.

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* More rarely, a plural form has a singular meaning.

Exercise

1. She (doesn't, don't) care.
2. They (wasn't, weren't) sure that (this sort of carpet tack, carpet tacks of this sort, those sort of carpet tacks) were [*or* was] long enough.
3. Of course a fellow should be allowed to do what (he wants, they want) to.
4. It (doesn't, don't) seem possible that (this kind of apple, apples of this kind, these kind of apples) won't keep.
5. The players don't reach the next round of the tournament unless (he beats his opponent, they beat their opponents).

B. PRONOUNS GRAMMATICALLY SINGULAR

Each, *every*, *every one*, *everybody*, *anybody*, *either*, *neither*, *no one*, *nobody*, and similar words are singular.*

Wrong: Nobody did their best.
Right: Nobody did his best.

Wrong: Either are capable of making a good officer.
Right: Either is capable of making a good officer.

Inconsistent: Every one *does* exactly what *they* want to. [Note that a distant pronoun is more likely to be misused than an adjacent verb.]
Right: Every one does exactly what he wants to.

Note 1.—*None* (from *no one*), though singular in origin, is now more often used as a plural. *All*, *more, most, some, such* may be singular or plural.

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* Careful writers therefore use them as singulars. Speakers, however, often use them as plurals.

Colloquially allowable: Everybody crowded about the hostess and assured her they had had a good time.

Formally correct: Everybody crowded about the hostess and assured her he had had a good time.

More natural: All the guests crowded about the hostess and assured her they had had a good time. [Usually the best way to avoid awkwardness is to replace the first pronoun in such sentences with a noun.]

Right: None are happier than they. All is well. All are excited. Some is just where we placed it. Some have sought relief.

Exercise

1. Each (takes, take) all (he, they) can cram into (his, their) pockets.
2. Such (is, are) the ways of the Lord.
3. Neither (is, are) so poor as all that.
4. Nobody can have (his, their) own way here.
5. Most (is, are) inclined to cast (his, their) lot with us.

C. *THERE IS (ARE)* SENTENCES, AND OTHER SENTENCES WITH SUBJECTS FOLLOWING VERBS

Bear in mind that the number of a verb is determined by the subject.

Wrong: There is good grounds for the decision. [*There*, an introductory adverb, is taken for the subject. The real subject is *grounds*.]
Right: There are good grounds for the decision.

Wrong: Among our purchases was a tie clasp and a hairbrush.
Right: Among our purchases were a tie clasp and a hairbrush.

Exercise

1. There (was, were) in the coach forty singing freshmen.
2. (Comes, Come) now ominous reports.
3. There (is, are) only three spellers left standing on each side.
4. There (appears, appear) to be only five numbers on the program.
5. Grimly in the harbor (rides, ride) a dreadnaught and a destroyer.

D. PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

When two nouns or pronouns are linked by a finite form of *to be*, the one which follows the verb may be more in the writer's mind. But, grammatically speaking, it is not the subject. It is a predicate complement; that is, it identifies the subject and completes the statement. The noun or pronoun which precedes the verb is the subject.

Wrong: The weak point in the team were the fielders.
Right: The weak point in the team was the fielders.

Wrong: Laziness and dissipation is the cause of his failure.
Right: Laziness and dissipation are the cause of his failure.

Exercise

1. It (is, are) you, (is, are) it?
2. Ghost stories told late at night (is, are) a crime against children.
3. My informant about the time (is, are) the factory whistles.
4. The manager and his assistant (is, are) our chief hope.
5. The cure for that (is, are) soap and water.

E. INTERVENING NOUNS OR PRONOUNS

Nouns or pronouns which come between subject and verb must not be allowed to affect the number of the verb. Such nouns or pronouns are usually introduced by *of*, *with*, *together with*, *as well as*, *no less than*, or the like.

Wrong: The length of the levers we are using increase our lifting power greatly by their length. [The writer, thinking of *levers*, forgets that he has made *length* his subject or indeed that he has used the word.]
Right: The length of the levers we are using increases our lifting power greatly.

Wrong: The size of the plantations vary.
Right: The size of the plantations varies. [Or] The plantations vary in size.

Wrong: Each of us expect to make a fortune.
Right: Each of us expects to make a fortune.

Wrong: The mayor of the city, as well as several aldermen, have investigated the charges. [*Mayor* is the sole subject. The expression *as well as* shows that the aldermen are brought in incidentally.]

Right: The mayor of the city, as well as several aldermen, has investigated the charges. [Or, making *aldermen* a grammatical part of the subject] The mayor of the city and several of the aldermen have investigated the charges.

Wrong: He, and not the others, deserve the credit.

Right: He, and not the others, deserves the credit.

Note 2.—The noun or pronoun of an expression like *none of*, *some of*, *most of*, *half of*, *two thirds of*, *a part of*, or *the remainder of* may be singular or plural. It takes its number from the word following *of*. Its number, when thus determined, of course determines the number of the verb.

Right: Some of it *was* lost. [*Was* agrees with *some*, which is singular because *it* is singular.] Some of the cattle *were* sold. Three fourths of that wire *has* been insulated. Three fourths of the musicians *have* resigned.

Note 3.—In an expression like "one of the best which (was, were) ever invented" *best* (a plural) is the antecedent of *which*, and *which* is the subject of the verb.

Right: It seems to be one of the best which were ever invented.

Exercise

1. The car together with its accessories (costs, cost) eleven hundred dollars.
2. A bungalow court of eight buildings (occupies, occupy) the next lot.
3. The rest of the members (offers, offer) no objection.
4. Each of them (assures, assure) me that the fish is one of the largest which (has, have) been caught in years.
5. The state, no less than the counties, (is, are) interested in better roads.

F. COMPOUNDS OR ALTERNATES WITH VERBS OR PRONOUNS

Right: A car and a plane *are* a convenience to *their* owner. [Singular nouns or pronouns joined by *and* are regularly plural as subjects or antecedents.]

Right: A car or a plane *is* a convenience to *its* owner. [Singular nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* are regularly singular as subjects or antecedents.]

Note 4.—Singular nouns or pronouns joined by *and* are used as singulars rather than plurals when they name the same person or thing ("My friend and colleague *sends* you *his* good wishes"), when they form a logical unit ("Our end and aim *is* just this"), or when they are modified by a preceding *each*, *every*, *no*, or *many a* ("Many a man and woman *fails* here").

Note 5.—When of two subjects or antecedents joined by *or* or *nor* one is singular and the other plural, the verb or pronoun usually agrees with the nearer ("Neither the drum nor the brasses *are* loud enough"; "Either his partners or he must have *his* way in the matter"). But often it is better to recast the sentence ("Both the drum and the brasses are too soft"; "His partners must have their way in the matter, or else he must have his").

Exercise

1. The paper and the plaster (has, have) fallen from the ceiling.
2. The secretary and treasurer (is, are) the oldest member of the staff. Neither the president nor I (is, am) new at the work, though.
3. The oak and the chestnut (spreads, spread) (its, their) branches wide.
4. Neither the baritone nor the tenor (has, have) as good a voice as the soprano. The guitar or the mandolin (is, are) always out of tune.
5. Each crack in a pipe and each worn washer (causes, cause) a drip.

G. COLLECTIVE NOUNS

When several persons or things are referred to by a noun singular in form, usually the group as a whole is thought of and the noun is made singular. If the members are thought of individually, the noun becomes plural.

Right: The crowd is waiting.

Right: The crowd are of various moods.

English usage: The government are considering new measures.
American usage: The government is considering new measures.

Note 6.—Be consistent. Do not use with a collective noun a singular verb and a plural pronoun, or a plural verb and a singular pronoun.

Wrong: The committee *has* disbanded and gone to *their* homes. [Use *have*.]

H. NOUNS PLURAL IN FORM WITH SINGULAR MEANING

Some nouns with plural forms are singular in meaning: *economics*, *news*. Some are either singular or plural: *athletics*, *politics*. Any plural form, any group of words, or any designation of a quantity or sum, when considered in itself or as a single thing, is singular.

Right: Mathematics is a bugbear to many students.

Right: *They* is a pronoun.

Right: "Honesty is the best policy" is an excellent motto.

Right: Five dollars is the amount I owe you.

Exercise

1. Five feet and seven inches (is, are) your height.
2. "O, that this too too solid flesh would melt" (opens, open) Hamlet's first soliloquy.
3. The latest news (is, are) encouraging.
4. Eighty seconds (is, are) a minute and twenty seconds.
5. Economics (has, have) forced (its, their) way into the college curriculum.

Exercise

1. The swimming, boating, and fishing (is, are) good.
2. Neither of us (is, are) feeling very spry this morning.
3. A deck of ordinary playing cards consisting of fifty-two cards (is, are) used.
4. The audience (knows, know) nothing of this till the curtain rises.
5. Years of experience in buying clothes (gives, give) me confidence in my judgment.
6. Some nights may seem still, yet there (is, are) always noises.
7. The occupant together with half a dozen barking dogs (sallies, sally) forth to meet us.
8. The Amazon with its tributaries (affords, afford) access to the sea.
9. The ore is sorted and the cars having good ore (is, are) hauled to the smelter.
10. Each of us in that dismal waiting room (was, were) angry with the agent for telling us the train was not late.
11. I don't care for (this boasting kind of traveler, these boasting kind of travelers, these boasting travelers).
12. The cause of the outbreak of hostilities (is, are) often little unpredictable incidents.
13. It (doesn't, don't) matter if every one (doesn't, don't) get (his, their) right place.
14. "Current Events" (is, are) a very useful department of the magazine. It is one of the few that (brings, bring) letters from readers.
15. In spite of all obstacles, the construction of the three hundred trestles and the twenty scaffolds (was, were) completed.

Tense, Mode, Auxiliaries

12. Use the tense, the mode, the auxiliary which expresses exactly the time and the tone of an assertion. In a sequence of sentences or sentence elements do not make needless changes in tense, mode, or auxiliaries.

A. TENSE

The five ordinary tenses are the present (He *watches*), the past (He *watched*), the future (He *will watch**), the present perfect (He *has watched*), and the past perfect (He *had watched*). A sixth tense, the future perfect, is rarely used (By eleven o'clock he *will have watched* for an hour).

Wrong tense of infinitive: I intended to have gone. [The principal verb *intended* indicates a past time. In that past time I intended to do something. What? Did I intend *to go*, or *to have gone?*]
Right: I intended to go.

Wrong tense in dependent clause: We hoped that you would have come to the party. [The principal verb *hoped* indicates a past time. In that past time our hope was that you *would come*, not that you *would have come*.]
Right: We hoped that you would come to the party.

Wrong tense of participle: The place is now used as a dude ranch, the cattle business being discontinued long ago. [With reference to the time of the main verb is the time of the participle past or present?]
Right: The place is now used as a dude ranch, the cattle business having been discontinued long ago.

Needless change of tense: We secured nine freshmen as pledges. Soon afterward we initiate them. [Say *initiated*.]

Change of time of action not shown: The Confederates hit upon the idea of an ironclad ship. The Union forces sank the *Merrimac* on abandoning the Norfolk navy yard. The Southerners raised this vessel. [Replace *sank* with *had sunk*.]

Wrong tense for a timeless general statement: He said that Venus was a planet. [Has Venus ceased to be a planet?]
Right: He said that Venus is a planet.

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* Other forms for expressing future time: He *is to watch*, He *is going to watch*, He *is about to watch*, He *is watching* tomorrow night.

Wrong use of the present perfect for a definite past time*: I have had a narrow escape yesterday.

Right: I had a narrow escape yesterday.

Note 1.—Unaided tense does not always express time adequately. Time modifiers may be needed as helpers.

Not clear: From a geologist I learned about formations in southern Idaho. The entire country was covered by a vast flow of lava. A crust hardened and caverns were left underneath.

Clear: From a geologist I learned about formations in southern Idaho. *Millions of years ago* the entire country was covered by a vast flow of lava. *Afterward* a crust hardened and caverns were left underneath.

Exercise

1. Lafe hobbled along on the leg which he (broke, had broken).
2. They expected (to win, to have won) the game.
3. (Being, Having been) exposed to smallpox, he was placed in quarantine.
4. I saw it in the window. It was the very book I (wanted, had wanted) so long.
5. The speaker reminded us that a watched kettle never (boils, boiled).
6. In 1871 a large part of Chicago burned. Wood (was used, had been used) in building the houses.
7. She was a widow, (losing, having lost) her husband two years before.
8. He described the galleries he (saw, had seen) in France and Italy.
9. One day we saw a really deserving fellow thumb a ride. The car he (rode in, had ridden in) (broke, had broken) down. Getting a lift enabled him to reach a garage quickly.
10. Yesterday I supposed that the car (would not require, would not have required) more grease till it ran a thousand miles.

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* The present perfect covers a period up to the present and may have modifiers which show an *in*definite past time.

Right: I have had many narrow escapes in my day.

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B. SPECIAL PROBLEMS REGARDING TENSE FORMS

SHALL and WILL

In all persons and uses, *will* as a future tends to replace *shall*. Indeed *shall* has largely disappeared from colloquial English. But in formal, written English *shall* still enables us to make important distinctions in thought.

In expressing simple futurity or mere expectation, *shall* is used with the first person (both singular and plural) and *will* with the second and third.

I shall go.	We shall walk.
You will play.	You will hear.
He will sing.	They will reply.

In expressing resolution or emphatic assurance, *will* is used with the first person (both singular and plural) and *shall* with the second and third.

I will; I tell you I will.	We will not be excluded.
You shall do what I bid.	You shall not delay us.
He shall obey me.	They shall pay the tribute.*

SHOULD and WOULD

The ordinary distinction between *should* and *would* is like that between *shall* and *will*.

Mere statement of a fact:

I [or We] should like to go.

You [or He or They] would of course accept the offer.

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* In these instances it is the speaker or writer who shows determination. When the actor (that is, the subject of the sentence) shows the determination, *will* is used in all persons. Right:

You will play with fire, will you?

Do that? He simply will not.

In questions *shall* is used in the second person when *shall* is expected in the answer, *will* when *will* is expected in the answer.

Simple future: Shall you attend the reception? [Answer: Yes, I shall, or No, I shall not.]

Strong resolution: On your honor now, will you pay? [Answer: I will.]

Resolution or emphatic assurance:

I [or We] would never go under terms so degrading. We made up our minds that you [he, they] should not lack food.*

Principal Parts

The principal parts of a verb are the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle. Usually the past tense and the past participle are alike:

Present tense: I *watch* (now)
Past tense: I *watched* (yesterday)
Past participle: I have *watched* (in bygone years)

When the past tense and past participle are thus identical, a speaker or writer need have no misgivings about the form he uses.

But in some verbs the past tense and past participle differ in form. Hence the speaker or writer must be constantly on his guard against using one form for the other.*

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* When the actor (rather than the speaker or writer) shows determination, *would* is used in all persons. Right:

Though warned, you would make radical speeches.
He simply would jaywalk.

Should is used in all persons to express (1) obligation, (2) that which can surely be expected. Right:

Obligation: You should decline; honor demands it.
Justifiable expectation: Ten dollars should be enough.

In a conditional clause *should* is ordinarily used in all persons. Right:

If you should complain, they would arrest you.
Should it snow, we shall get out the skid chains.

But in a conditional clause which expresses strong determination on the part of the actor or strong desire on the part of the writer or speaker, *would* is used in all persons.

Will of actor: If he would not hear reason, you could do nothing.
Wish of speaker: If you would but take the first step, I should gladly meet you half way.

Would is used to express (1) a wish, (2) a customary action.

Wish: Would that I could swim!
Habitual action: He [I, We, You, They] would sit there by the hour.

Study carefully the three following pairs of verbs. Not all the six verbs are "irregular"—that is, not all of them have past tenses differing from their past participles. The two members of each pair do, however, resemble each other closely enough in form and meaning to cause much perplexity.

LIE, LAY; SIT, SET; RISE, RAISE

Present tense	*Past tense*	*Past participle*
I lie	I lay	[I have] lain
I lay	I laid	]I have[laid
I sit	I sat	[I have] sat
I set	I set	[I have] set
I rise	I rose	[I have] risen
I raise	I raised	[I have] raised

Lie, sit, rise are used intransitively; *lay, set, raise* are used transitively. *Lay, set, raise* are causatives; that is, *to lay* means *to cause to lie*, etc.

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* The following verbs are the most troublesome. In not all do the past tense and past participle actually differ, but in most the two forms may cause uncertainty.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
am	was	been	bid (offer money)	bid	bid
attack	attacked	attacked			
awake	awoke	awaked	bite	bit	bitten
	awaked	awoke			bit†
bear	bore	borne	bleed	bled	bled
		born	blow	blew	blown
begin	began	begun	break	broke	broken
bend	bent	bent	broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
bid (order)	bade	bidden		broadcasted††	broadcasted††
	bid	bid			

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† Colloquial.
†† Has some standing in radio use.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
burn	burned	burned	lean	leaned	leaned
	burnt	burnt		leant	leant
burst	burst	burst	lend	lent	lent
catch	caught	caught	lie (recline)	lay	lain
choose	chose	chosen	light	lighted	lighted
climb	climbed	climbed		lit	lit
come	came	come	loose	loosed	loosed
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost
dig	dug	dug	mean	meant	meant
	digged	digged	prove	proved	proved
dive	dived	dived	read	read	read
	dove†		ride	rode	ridden
do	did	done	ring	rang	rung
drag	dragged	dragged		rung	
draw	drew	drawn	rise	rose	risen
dream	dreamed	dreamed	run	ran	run
	dreamt	dreamt	say	said	said
drink	drank	drunk	see	saw	seen
drive	drove	driven	set	set	set
drown	drowned	drowned	sew	sewed	sewed
dwell	dwelt	dwelt			sewn
	dwelled	dwelled	shake	shook	shaken
eat	ate	eaten	shine	shone	shone
fall	fell	fallen	show	showed	shown
fight	fought	fought			showed
flee	fled	fled	shrink	shrank	shrunk
flow	flowed	flowed		shrunk	
fly	flew	flown	sing	sang	sung
forget	forgot	forgotten		sung	
		forgot	sit	sat	sat
freeze	froze	frozen	smite	smote	smitten
get	got	got			smit
		gotten			smote
go	went	gone	sow	sowed	sown
grow	grew	grown			sowed
hang	hung	hung	speak	spoke	spoken
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged	spit	spat	spat
hold	held	held		spit	spit
kneel	knelt	knelt	spring	sprang	sprung
	kneeled	kneeled		sprung	
know	knew	known	steal	stole	stolen
lay	laid	laid	strike	struck	struck
lead	led	led			stricken

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† Colloquial.

Exercise

1. I (shall, will) probably do as he says. I'm determined; I (shall, will) win that pole vault. We (shall, will) see what tomorrow (shall, will) bring forth. The train (shall, will) whistle at this crossing, I suppose. When the log is nearly severed, it (shall, will) pinch the saw. Johnny, you (shall, will) not go near those strawberries. He (shall, will) not leave us in this predicament; I repeat it, he (shall, will) not. (Shall, Will) you give the organ grinder some money?
2. (Should, Would) we ask his permission? Rover (should, would) stay in the house all the time, if we (should, would) let him. If you (should, would) visit his laboratory, you (should, would) learn how a starfish preserved in alcohol smells. The telegram (should, would) arrive at any moment, don't you think? Every afternoon he (should, would) stop to peer at the bulletins in front of the newspaper office. She (should, would) attend the funeral services, hard as we tried to dissuade her. You (should, would) go; you've made an appointment.
3. After he (lay, laid) down, he remembered he had left his books (lying, laying) in the orchard. That evening he (lay, laid) aside all cares. The children have (lain, laid) in bed until eight o'clock. John has (lain, laid) his coat on the chair. He (lies, lays) there

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
strive	strove	striven			
	strived	strived	throw	threw	thrown
swear	swore	sworn	tread	trod	trodden
sweat	sweat	sweat			trod
	sweated	sweated	wake	waked	waked
swim	swam	swum		woke	
take	took	taken	wear	wore	worn
tear	tore	torn	weave	wove	woven
thrive	throve	thrived		weaved	wove
	thrived	thriven	write	wrote	written

asleep. (Lie, Lay) the shovel down. The garden is (lain, laid) out in rows. Have you been (lying, laying) plans for the future?

4. Jerome (sat, set) the box on the floor. Then he (sat, set) on the box. Four people are (sitting, setting) at the table. The maid is (sitting, setting) the pitcher on the cupboard shelf. I often (sit, set) up late. Last night I (sat, set) up late. I must (sit, set) the alarm clock. (Rise, Raise) up and speak. (Rise, Raise) your head. During the night the bread (rose, raised) to the top of the pan. Have they (risen, raised) the price of flour? The cork had gone under, but now it (rose, risen, raised) again to the surface. The invalid had slowly (rose, risen, raised) himself in bed.

5. He —— (past tense of *come*) to this country in 1907. He has —— (past participle of *eat*) breakfast and —— (past participle of *go*) to the office. Have you —— (past participle of *ride*) far? I have —— (past participle of *drive*) ten miles. I am sure it was Henry who —— (past tense of *do*) it, for I —— (past tense of *see*) him running away. The wind has —— (past participle of *tear*) down the chimney and —— (past participle of *blow*) a tree against the house. He —— (past tense of *throw*) the ball so hard that the window was —— (past participle of *break*) into a hundred pieces. The lifeguard —— (past tense of *give*) warning before we had —— (past participle of *swim*) out very far. Having —— (past participle of *drink*) buttermilk for several weeks, I —— (past tense of *begin*) to put on weight. Jim —— (past tense of *draw*) a bead quickly and —— (past tense of *take*) four shots at the rabbit. Agnes —— (past tense of *burst*) out laughing.

C. MODE AND AUXILIARIES*

Mode (often called mood) indicates the tone of an assertion—whether affirming, commanding, supposing. The indicative mode states, questions, or denies. (Dogs *bark*. *Are* you *crying?* My words *were* not *heard.*) The imperative mode urges or commands. (*Hurry! Eat* that spinach.) The subjunctive expresses a wish, an uncertainty, or a condition contrary to fact. (Oh, that he *were* with us! Who can say whether this *be* genuine? If I *were* you, I should accept it.) By the use of such auxiliaries as *may, can, must, might, would, could, should, may be, could have been* one can build up various modal forms or modal aspects, which are sometimes called collectively the potential mode.

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* See the section on Mode in Article 7.

Subjunctive Mode

In form the subjunctive has largely ceased to be distinctive. The only place in which it shows in all verbs is in the third person singular of the present tense, where it takes the form of the third person plural. The verb *be* has two forms, *be* and *were,* which are used throughout the present tense, singular and plural.* Elsewhere the subjunctive has indicative forms.

In use also—especially in colloquial use—the subjunctive has largely faded from the language. But it still is valuable, and sometimes indispensable, in expressing three things.

The first is a wish, a necessity, a command, or a parliamentary motion:

Oh, that I *were* king.
It is imperative that he *have* (or *shall have,* not *has*) your support.
The court commanded that the document *be* (or *should be*) produced.
I move that the claim *be* allowed.

The second is a doubt or uncertainty:

If this *be* (or *should be* or *is*) so, I congratulate you.
The child looks as if she *were* (or *is*) undernourished.
He had to clutch it tightly if he *were* (*was*) to keep his hold on it.

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* These two forms are probably used as frequently as all other distinctive subjunctive forms (from all other verbs) combined.

The third is a supposition or assumption, especially one contrary to fact:

Though he *slay* (*slays*) me, yet will I trust in him.
If I *were* (*was*) seven feet tall, I could see over these heads.
I wish that I *were* (*was*) young again.

The subjunctive is useful for conveying degrees of probability. Note the difference in the implications of these sentences:

Present indicative: If he gets the option, he will make a profit. [Noncommittal as to the likelihood of his getting the option]
Present subjunctive: If he get the option, he will make a profit. [Doubtful as to his getting the option]
Past subjunctive: If he got the option, he would make a profit. [Fairly confident that he will not get the option]

The present subjunctive may have a future meaning, the past subjunctive a present or a future meaning. (See *get* and *got* in the preceding examples.)

Auxiliaries

Unless auxiliaries are carefully adjusted to each other and to main verbs the mood or tone of a statement may be broken midway.

Needless change from indicative to subjunctive: By giving strict obedience to commands, a soldier *learns* discipline, and consequently *would have* steady nerves in time of war. [*Learns* should be followed by *will have*.]

Faulty change from imperative to indicative: *Consult* an oculist frequently in order that eye strain *does not develop*. [Here the imperative should be followed by the potential *may not develop*.]

Exercise

1. If I (be, was, were) sick, I should go home.

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2. It is important that a salesman (has, have, shall have) a good memory.
3. The Masons never invite men to join their lodge, but if a person expresses a desire to join, his friends (will, would) probably be able to secure membership for him.
4. He is changing the current in order that the refrigerator (may, might) freeze the ice cream more quickly.
5. Even if she (cooks, cook, cooked) it all day, it would still be tough.

Exercise

Make sure that each verb form is correct in itself and is adjusted to any others in the sentence.

1. Every one hoped that you would have spoken.
2. Our opponents expected to have won the game.
3. I have watched two steeple jacks painting a flagpole last week.
4. Lamb had been poor. He and Mary could buy anything they pleased.
5. Aunt Zoe reminded me that a bird in hand was worth two in the bush.
6. If you (have, had) to go by ferry, it would take you half an hour longer.
7. I give you my word: I (shall, will) not do so unworthy a thing and he (shall, will) not.
8. I saw it in the window. It was the very book I wanted so long. I vowed to myself that I simply (should, would) have it.
9. It is necessary that an Eskimo (catches, catch, shall catch) fish.
10. The oak paneling is now dark and rich in color, standing there for over a hundred years.

Substituted Forms and Elements

A. ADJECTIVES VS. ADVERBS

13A. Do not use an adverb as an adjective, or an adjective as an adverb. Choose the part of speech according to the use of the word in the sentence.

Modifiers of Ordinary Nouns or Verbs

Use as an adjective a word which qualifies a noun. Use as an adverb a word which qualifies a verb.

Gross misuse of adjective for adverb: He spoke slow and careful. [The modifiers refer to the manner of speaking—that is, to the verb, not the noun.]

Right: He spoke slowly and carefully.

Gross misuse of adjective for adverb: He sure does good in his classes.

Right: He surely does well in his classes.

Colloquial use of adverb for predicate adjective: Mother is poorly. [The modifier, though following the verb, refers to the subject.]

Right: Mother is not well. [Or] Mother is in poor health. [Or] Mother's health is poor.

Right use of adjectives: We stood firm. The shot rang loud. He becomes angry. The weeds grow thick. They remain obstinate. He seems intelligent. Your argument appears sound. [The reference is to the subject, not to the verb.]

Right use of adverbs: It is bolted firmly to the floor. He protested loudly. He scowls angrily. The alfalfa is sown thickly in the field. They obstinately persist. She has acted intelligently in the matter. Cuff his ears soundly. [The reference is to the verb.]

Note 1.—*Due to* and *caused by* modify nouns, not verbs or diffused ideas.

Objectionable: Due to the cold weather he wears an overcoat. [*Due to* vaguely modifies the entire main statement, *he wears an overcoat.*]

Better: Because of the cold weather he wears an overcoat. [*Because of*, unlike *due to*, is adverbial. It modifies *wears.*]

Also better: His use of an overcoat is due to the cold weather. [*Due to* now refers to the subject.]

Objectionable: The spectators yawn, caused by the length of his speech.

Right: The spectators yawn on account of the length of his speech.

Also right: The spectators do not stifle the yawns caused by the length of his speech.

Note 2.—A phrase introduced by a modifier does not affect the status of the modifier as adjective or adverb.

Wrong: Agreeable to this understanding the ship steams into port. [The agreeableness does not pertain to the ship. It pertains to the action taken—that is, to steaming into port.]

Right: Agreeably to [or *In consequence of*] this understanding the ship steams into port.

Right: An entrance agreeable to both parties was arranged. [The modifier refers to a noun.]

Exercise

1. Margaret (sure, surely) works (faithful, faithfully) in economics.
2. I think I should hesitate (some, somewhat, a little).
3. The spire rises (graceful, gracefully) and tapering.
4. At this reply the teacher grew (wrathful, wrathfully).
5. (Due to, Because of) illness, Dave stumbled (awkward, awkwardly). His health continues (feeble, feebly).

Modifiers after Sensory Verbs

After such verbs as *look, sound, taste, smell,* and *feel* use an adjective to denote a quality of the subject. (Do not use an adverb unless the reference is clearly to the verb.)

She looks beautiful. [Not *beautifully.*]
The dinner bell sounds good. [Not *well.*]
My food tastes bad. [Not *badly.*]
That flower smells bad. [Not *badly.*]
I feel good [*in good spirits*].
I feel well [*in good health.* An adjectival use of *well.*]
I feel bad [*in bad health or spirits.* "I feel badly" may mean "My sense of touch is impaired."]

Exercise

1. I feel (giddy, giddily).
2. Your roses look (sweet, sweetly).
3. No perfume smells so (dainty, daintily).
4. Does the salad taste (good, well)? Yes, it is (good, well).
5. Your voice sounds (familiar, familiarly).

Modifiers of Adjectives or Adverbs

Bear in mind that an adverb can modify an adjective or an adverb, and that an adjective can modify neither.

Colloquial: The train is some later than we thought.
Right: The train is somewhat later than we thought.

Wrong: We were most dead from weariness.
Right: We were almost dead from weariness.

Crude: I was that tired.
Right: I was extremely tired.

Crude: It is a real elegantly cut dress.
Right: It is a really [or *very*] elegantly cut dress.

Exercise

1. It costs (considerable, considerably) more than you would think.
2. It is (real, extremely) kind of you to do that.
3. We are (most, almost) there now.
4. I am (that, thoroughly) ashamed.
5. Do you see those maladjusted veterans? They make the effect of conflict upon life (plenty, sufficiently) clear.

Adverbs That Look like Adjectives

Bear in mind that some adverbs do not end in *ly* or have forms that do not end in *ly*. Do not mistake these adverbs for adjectives.

ADVERBS NOT ENDING IN *LY*

(*Far*, *Ill*, *Much*, *Well*, etc.)

Faulty: It is illy prepared. [The form *illy* has not become established.]

Right: It is ill prepared.

Crude: We were muchly impressed.

Right: We were much impressed.

ADVERBS WITH A FORM NOT ENDING IN *LY*

(*Slow*, *Quick*, *Cheap*, *Sharp*, etc.)

Normally used in short imperative sentences: Jump *quick*. Buy *cheap*. Hold *tight*. Look *sharp* now.

Used before adjectives: A *quickly* confirmed rumor. A *cheaply* wrought device. *Tightly* wound bandages. *Sharply* clear words.

Normally used in formal declarative sentences: They seal the documents *quickly*. He will secure the equipment as *cheaply* as he can. Does she bind the package *tightly* with string? He looks *sharply* for errors in these figures.

Exercise

1. Is the facade (much, muchly) improved?
2. How (ill, illy) you conceal your feelings.
3. He is (plain, plainly) angry.
4. We gazed at the (fast, fastly) receding dust cloud of the flying automobile.
5. Group sports develop a coordination of muscles (seldom, seldomly) obtained through other means.

B. OTHER SUBSTITUTED FORMS AND ELEMENTS

B. Do not assign to one element the functions of another. Make your use of the parts of speech grammatical.

Pronoun misused for adverb: They was a dog on the porch.
Right: There was a dog on the porch.

Verb form substituted for noun: She gave me an invite to her party.
Right: She gave me an invitation to her party. [Or] She invited me to her party.

Noun form substituted for verb: I suspicioned him all along.
Right: I suspected him all along.

Like used as conjunction in complete clause: He walks like a sailor does.
Better: He walks as a sailor does. [Or] He walks like a sailor.

Phrase (other than a noun phrase) used as subject: Born in a log cabin gave him a poor start in life.
Right: Born in a log cabin, he had a poor start in life. [Or] The fact that he was born in a log cabin gave him a poor start in life.

Subordinate clause (other than a noun clause) used as subject: Because color photography was not used makes the scarf look black instead of red.
Right: Because color photography was not used the scarf looks

black instead of red. [Or] The failure to use color photography makes the scarf look black instead of red.

Subordinate clause (other than a noun clause) used as predicate noun: A car hop is where somebody brings food from a lunch room to customers in their cars.

Right: A car hop is a person who brings food from a lunch room to customers in their cars.

Predication misused for noun form: I stayed away on account of I was sick.

Right: I stayed away on account of sickness [or *being sick*].

Note.—In using a noun (as if it were an adjective) to modify another noun take care to avoid awkwardness or confusion.*

Clumsy: A Baltimore automobile accident, trust positions, a socialism outline, a colds crusade.

Better: An automobile accident in Baltimore, positions of trust, an outline of socialism, a crusade against colds.

Exercise

1. Deprived of a claw makes the lobster look clumsier than ever.
2. Constantly in conversation with some one broadens our ideas and our vocabulary.
3. Should we conduct (an enlightenment campaign, a campaign of enlightenment)?
4. A wireless telegraph is when messages are sent a long distance through the air.
5. With so many blights to contend with has caused a great loss of trees every year.

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* Though "newspaper heading adjectives" (as such nouns may be called) are often objectionable, the genius of the language sanctions them when they are skilfully and sparingly employed. *Queen Anne furniture* is more concise than *furniture belonging to the period of Queen Anne. An art gallery* is more natural than *a gallery for the exhibition of paintings.* Note too how easily this use of nouns enables us to draw such distinctions as that between *a player piano* and *a piano player.*

C. DOUBLE CAPACITY

C. Do not omit a word or phrase if the omission forces upon another word or phrase an unnatural use.

Preposition wrongly omitted: Are you fond and diligent in work?

Right: Are you fond of work and diligent in it?

Conjunction wrongly omitted: He was as old, if not older, than any other man in the community. [. . . *as old* . . . *than*]

Right: He was as old as any other man in the community, if not older.

Double use of noun form: He is one of the most skilful, if not the most skilful, tennis players in the state.

Right: He is one of the most skilful tennis players in the state, if not the most skilful. [Double capacity is especially awkward when the first element is suspended while the second is being introduced. If the first element is completed before the second is mentioned, an omission from the second can usually be supplied by the reader.* Thus it is unnecessary to write *player* at the end of the sentence here revised.]

Double use of verb form: He has and will prosecute trespassers.

Right: He has prosecuted trespassers and will prosecute them. [Or] He has prosecuted trespassers and he will.

Exercise

1. We have and will believe you.
2. Ours is as good, if not the best, of the offers submitted.
3. I am familiar but not impressed by such arguments.
4. The ventilation is as bad if not worse than the lighting.
5. This is one of the oldest, though hardly the most famous, picture in the gallery.

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* But sometimes the omission is grossly awkward. Example: We always have done it and are. [Add *doing it now.*]

13

Exercise

Correct the following sentences to make sure that each element (a) is the part of speech needed and (b) has the right form.

1. That altarpiece looks (real, really, extremely) (old, oldly).
2. The ship bow carries a figurehead.
3. This is one of the best, if not the best, clubhouse in the state.
4. With such rough water to steer through made it doubtful whether we could reach the landing.
5. These cards are exchangeably for tickets on payment of a tax.
6. We had come to the supposedly land of sunshine.
7. On account of his training in mechanics should make it easy for him to mend a clock.
8. Due to the fair in September they speak some of coming to see us.
9. Because the fixtures might injure a passenger hurled against them caused the company to sink them in the dashboard.
10. Remember how much more easily it is to judge such matters afterward.
11. A visit to the ten cent store is better, or perhaps I should say as good, as a visit to the circus.
12. Have you read the battleship disaster account?
13. We're most too far off to see good. I'm that disgusted about it.
14. A good actor portrays a character so realistic that you feel like you are looking on life.
15. They was a parade that afternoon. It was as big, if not the biggest, the town had ever known.

The most useful terms of grammar are those that name
the large elements of the sentence { subject, predicate, completer, modifier, phrase, clause,
and the parts of speech {
verb,
noun, pronoun, [= substantives]
adjective, adverb, [= modifiers]
preposition, conjunction, [= connectives]
interjection.

You will know nine tenths of all that is important in grammar when you are able to recognize these elements in any ordinary sentence.

The Terms of Grammar

14. Be able to explain the construction of any part of an ordinary sentence. That is, be able to answer the question "What work does this word or word-group do in the sentence?"

Example: When fools make mistakes, my boy, they lay the blame on Providence.

WHAT IS THE CONSTRUCTION	
of *they?*	It is the subject of *lay*.
of *lay?*	It is the predicate of *they*.
of *blame?*	It is a completer after *lay*.
of *on Providence?*	It is a modifier of *lay*.
of *When fools make mistakes?*	It is a modifier of *lay*.
of *my boy?*	It is an independent element.

Any word or word-group in any sentence must do one of these six kinds of work:

It may be a **subject.**
It may be a **predicate** (say *verb* if you prefer).
It may be a **complement** or **completer** (object, predicate noun, or predicate adjective).
It may be a **modifier** (phrase, clause, adjective, adverb).
It may be a **connective** (*and*, *or*, *but*).
It may be an **independent element** (interjection, etc.).

Thus a knowledge of six constructions will enable you to explain any ordinary sentence, provided you box off each phrase or subordinate clause and treat it as if it were a single big word (it will always do the work of a single part of speech). This is the "first stage of grammatical knowledge," when you do not attempt to explain what is inside a phrase or clause but take each as a unit.

Afterward you learn to *go inside* the phrase or clause and to explain the construction of all the words within it. This is the "second stage of grammatical knowledge." To attain it you need a knowledge of all of the parts of speech.

Absolute expression. See **Independent element.**

Active voice. See **Verb.**

Adjective (one of the eight parts of speech). An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or pronoun.

bright sun *cool-headed* adventurers Cherries are *red.*

When an adjective is used in the predicate to complete the meaning of the verb it is called a **predicate adjective:**

The weather is *rainy.* [*Rainy,* though it stands in the predicate, may still be said to modify and explain the subject *weather.*]

Adjectives are sometimes divided into two classes, descriptive and limiting (the classification has no great functional value).

Descriptive adjectives tell *what kind: gay* colors, *handsome* fellow.

Limiting adjectives tell *what one: the* girl, *ten* men, *this* car.

Limiting adjectives include **Articles** (*a, an, the*), **Numerals** (*one, two, first, second*), and **Pronominals.** Pronominals include

Possessives: *my* dog, *his* problems, *her, its, our, your, their.*
Demonstratives: *this* day, *that* page, *these* nuts, *those* pies.
Interrogatives: *whose* dog? *which* car? *what* street?
Relatives: one *whose* name I forgot, during *which* time.
Indefinites: *each* dog, *any* day, *every, some, no.*

Adjectives have three forms or **degrees of comparison.** (See *Comparison.*)

Positive Degree:	bright,	bad,	grateful,	careful
Comparative Degree:	brighter,	worse,	more grateful,	less careful
Superlative Degree:	brightest,	worst,	most grateful,	least careful

Adverb (one of the eight parts of speech). An adverb is a word used to modify a verb or a modifier.

Adverb modifying a verb: played *well, almost* won.
Adverb modifying an adjective: *too* clever, *unusually* handsome.
Adverb modifying an adverb: *very* sternly, *too* eagerly, *almost* there.

More rarely, an adverb may modify a verbal (Walking *fast* is good for the health), or a phrase (The ship drifted *almost* into the breakers), or a subordinate clause (The messenger came *just* when we were starting).

Adverbs answer the questions *When? Where? How? How much?* On the basis of these "adverb questions" it is possible to classify adverbs according to meaning thus: adverbs of **time** (*now, today, soon, afterward*), **place** (*here, there, out, indoors*), **manner** (*courageously, clearly, fast*), **degree** (*rather, hardly, not, much*). The classification has not much functional value, but it helps one to know what an adverb is.

Adverbs have three forms called **degrees of comparison:** *well, better, best: slowly, more slowly, most slowly.* (See *Comparison.*)

Antecedent. An antecedent is a noun (or pronoun) to which a pronoun refers.

The *man* who hesitates is lost; the *woman* who hesitates is won. [*Man* is the antecedent of *who. Woman* is the antecedent of the second *who.*]

Literally, *antecedent* means *that which goes before;* but sometimes the antecedent follows the dependent word.

Appositive. An appositive is a noun (or its equivalent), often with modifiers, set alongside another noun as a substitute name or equivalent expression. The second name is said to be **in apposition** with the first.

Ronald Custis, *a hard-riding polo player*, bought my father's favorite horse, *Morning Star*. [*Player* is in apposition with *Ronald Custis*, and *Morning Star* is in apposition with *horse*. The entire word-group, *a hard-riding polo player*, is an appositive.]

For "fused appositives" like *my brother Robert* see page 165, Note 3.

Article. The adjectives *a, an, the* are called articles. *A* and *an* are called indefinite articles. *The* is called the definite article.

Auxiliary. *Be, have, do, shall, will, ought, may, can, must, might, could, would, should,* etc., when used as helpers with other verbs, are called auxiliaries. A verb usually consists of one or two words, but may consist of three or four:

sing, has sung, had been singing, should have been sung

Have and *be* are here the "helping verbs" or auxiliaries. *Be* in its various forms (*is, are, was, were*) is used as an auxiliary oftener than any other verb.

Case. Case is the relation of a substantive to other words in the sentence as shown by inflectional form or position. The subject of a verb, or a predicate noun or pronoun after a finite form of the verb *to be*, is in the **nominative case.** The object of a verb or preposition, or the "assumed subject" of an infinitive, is in the **objective case.** A noun or pronoun which denotes possession is in the **possessive case.**

Clause. A clause is a part of a sentence that contains a subject and verb, perhaps with modifiers.

She is a rosy Irish girl	who makes good cherry pies.
$\underbrace{\text{The sun tries to shine}}$	$\underbrace{\text{after the rain is ended.}}$
Main (independent) Clause	Subordinate (dependent) Clause

Comparison. Comparison of an adjective or an adverb is the indication, by inflection or otherwise, of degrees of quality, quantity, or manner. There are three degrees of comparison:

	Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
adjectives	old	older	oldest
	beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
adverbs	hard	harder	hardest
	rapidly	less rapidly	least rapidly

Ordinarily *er* or *r* is added to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* or *st* to the positive to form the superlative (*brave, braver, bravest*). But many words of two or more syllables are compared by adding to the positive stem *more* or *less* for the comparative and *most* or *least* for the superlative. Some adjectives and adverbs express qualities that do not permit comparison (*dead, four-sided, unique, original*).

Complement (also called **completer**). A complement is a word or word-group in the predicate that completes the essential meaning of the verb. There are three kinds of complements:

Object: Trees mark the *course* of the river.
Predicate noun: My sister is a *teacher*.
Predicate adjective: The program was *jolly*.

Conjugation. Conjugation is a series of inflectional changes in the verb to indicate person, number, tense, voice, mode. (See the end of this article under *Verb*.)

Conjunction (one of the eight parts of speech). A conjunction is a word used to join elements of a sentence and to show the relations between them. A **coordinating conjunction** joins elements of equal rank (words, phrases, or clauses). A **subordinating conjunction** joins a subordinate clause to some other word in the sentence.

Coordinating conjunctions: *and, or, but, for.**

Subordinating conjunctions (introducing adverb clauses): *after, as, before, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, where, wherever, because, why, if, unless, than, although, though, that, so that.*

Construction (also called **syntax**). See the first page of this article.

Coordinate. The adjective *coordinate* means *equal in rank: Tom* and *Jerry . . . hop, skip,* and *jump . . . quarterly* or *semiannually . . .*

Copula. See **Linking verb.**

Declension. Declension is a series of changes in a noun, pronoun, or adjective to indicate person, number, or case.

Direct address or **vocative.** A "word in direct address" is a noun or pronoun used parenthetically (set off by commas) to show who is spoken to: *George,* will you hand me the soup ladle, please? [Do not confuse *direct address* with *direct quotation,* the exact words of another.]

Element. An element is any word or word group that has a separate grammatical function in a sentence. *Sentence element* is a convenient general term because it spares us the necessity of repeating the awkward series "word, phrase, clause, or other word group" when we are discussing punctuation or grammar.

Ellipsis, elliptical expression. An ellipsis is an expression partially incomplete, so that words have to be understood to round out the meaning. An idea or relation corresponding to the omitted words is present, at least vaguely, in the mind of the speaker. Elliptical sentences are usually justifiable except when the reader cannot instantly supply the understood words.

I will go if you will [go]. You are as lazy as I [am lazy].

Is your sister coming? I think [my sister is] not [coming].

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* To these four may be added *so, yet, nor* (negative form of *or*). *So* and *yet* are adverbs which are rapidly becoming conjunctions. Adverbs that frequently introduce a coordinate clause are sometimes called **conjunctive adverbs:** *then, besides, too, also, moreover, further, indeed, in fact, nevertheless, however, still, only, otherwise, therefore, thus, hence, consequently, accordingly, as a result.*

Gerund. A gerund is a verbal in *ing* used as a noun. (See *Verbal.*)

I do not object to your *telling.*
His *having deserted* us made little difference.

Independent element (also called **interrupter**). An independent element is a word or word group that has no construction—no grammatical connection with other words in the sentence.

Interjection: *Listen,* someone is coming.
Noun in direct address: *Sister,* stop talking.
Directive expression: Her family, *they say,* is wealthy.
Absolute expression: *The wind having died down,* we took to the oars. [An absolute expression is regularly built upon a noun and a participle. Sometimes it has almost the meaning of an adverb clause (when the wind had died down).]

Infinitive. An infinitive is a verbal regularly introduced by *to* and used as a noun or a modifier. (See *Verbal.*)

Used as a noun: *To err* is human. I like *to eat.*
Used as an adjective: house *to rent,* car *to drive.*
Used as an adverb: ready *to go,* dressed *to attract* attention.

After certain verbs (*bid, dare, help, make, need*) the sign *to* is omitted. Do you dare *go?* Please help *peel* potatoes.

Inflection is a series of changes in the form of a word to show a modification or shade of meaning. Once our language offered a separate form for nearly every modification. Though separate forms are now less numerous, *inflection* is still a convenient general term to include the **declension** of nouns, the **comparison** of adjectives and adverbs, and the **conjugation** of verbs.

Interjection (one of the eight parts of speech). An interjection is a word *thrown into* speech to express emotion. It has no grammatical connection with other words.

Oh, is that it? *Well*, I'll do it.

Linking verb (also called **copula**). A linking verb is a verb used to express the relation between the subject and the predicate noun or adjective. Linking verbs include *be* (*is*, *are*, *was*, *were*), *become*, *seem*, etc., and sometimes *feel*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*.

ABRIDGED CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*

Singular

Present	I am	You are	He is
Past	I was	You were	He was
Future	I shall be	You will be	He will be
Pres. Perfect	I have been	You have been	He has been
Past Perfect	I had been	You had been	He had been
Future Perfect	I shall have been	You will have been	He will have been

Plural

Present	We are	You are	They are
Past	We were	You were	They were
Future	We shall be	You will be	They will be
Pres. Perfect	We have been	You have been	They have been
Past Perfect	We had been	You had been	They had been
Future Perfect	We shall have been	You will have been	They will have been

Mode (also called **Mood**). See **Verb**.

Modifier. A modifier is a word or expression used to describe or limit the meaning of another word. *Fried rabbit* means something different from *rabbit;* hence *fried* is said to modify or limit *rabbit. Women in politics* means something different from *women;* hence the phrase *in politics* is said to modify or limit *women.*

To modify is to be grammatically dependent; hence in *the girl I like* both *the* and [*that*] *I like* are dependent upon *girl*. In *a very intelligent girl* the adjectives *a* and *intelligent* modify *girl* and *very* modifies *intelligent*.

Modifiers may be words, phrases, or clauses. They may be **adjectival modifiers** (modifying a noun) or **adverbial modifiers** (modifying a verb, an adjective, or an adverb).

	Adjectival Modifier	*Adverbial Modifier*
Clause	children *who are healthy*	come *after you eat*
Phrase	*in good health*	*after dinner*
Word	*healthy* children	come *afterward*

Noun (one of the eight parts of speech). A noun is a name. The uses of a noun are these four:

Subject of a verb: The *bank* will close at one o'clock.

Object
- **of a verb:** He closed the *banks* for a week.
- **of a preposition:** I am going to the *bank* at noon.
- **of a verbal:** Closing the *bank* at noon inconveniences many working people.

Predicate noun: This building is the *First National Bank.*

Appositive: He has an account at the County National, the leading *bank* of the town.

By a change of force a word which ordinarily does the work of a noun may be made to do the work of an adjective (the *brick* sidewalk, *Joseph's* coat), or an adverb (John went *home*), or an independent element (*Jehoshaphat*, what an idea!)

Classification. A noun may be **proper** (*Philip Watkins*), or **common.** Common nouns may be **concrete** (*man*, *windmill*), or **abstract** (*gratitude*, *nearness*). A noun applied to a group is said to be **collective** (*family*, *race*).

A **common noun** is one that can be applied to any one of many persons, places, things, acts, ideas: *horse*, *city*, *car*, *war*, *hunger*.

A **proper noun** is a highly specific name that fits one (and usually *only* one) person, place, thing, act, idea: *Franklin*

D. Roosevelt, Ohio, a *Ford, Interstate Commerce Act, Americans.* A proper noun is capitalized.

A **concrete noun** is a name of something that can be perceived by the senses: *paint, musician, vinegar, violets, velvet.*

An **abstract noun** is the name of a quality, state, or general idea: *whiteness, smoothness, weight, courage, health, government, peace.*

Object. An object is a noun (or the equivalent) that completes the meaning of a preposition or a transitive verb.

Object of a preposition: through the *house,* between *her* and *me.*

Object of a verb: broke a *window,* presented a new *play.*

Indirect Object is the term sometimes used to describe a noun or pronoun that comes before the direct object:

The cook baked *me* a gooseberry pie. [Here *me* is the indirect object, and *pie* is the direct object. The direct object receives the verb act, and the indirect object receives the object.]

The modern tendency is to abandon the term indirect object and to explain the construction as an elliptical phrase from which the preposition *to* or *for* has been omitted.

Participle. A verbal in *ing* (and the past form ending in *ed, t, en,* or the like) when used as an adjective is called a participle. (See **Verbal.**)

Senora Garcia, *wearing* the pearls, came to the footlights.
Having emptied the fish basket, he returned to the wharf.

Passive Voice. See **Verb.**

Phrase. A phrase is a word group used as a single part of speech and not built around a subject and verb.

A **prepositional phrase** is built around a preposition:

With a whistle and a roar the train arrived.

A **verbal phrase** is built around a participle, gerund, or infinitive:

> Jack and Jill went up the hill *to fetch a pail of water* [infinitive phrase].

Predicate. A predicate is a word or word group that makes an assertion about the subject. We may use *predicate* or *simple predicate* to mean the verb alone. We may use *predicate* or (more accurately) *complete predicate* to mean the verb assertion expanded by modifiers or completers. Two or more verbs that are governed by the same subject form a **compound predicate:**

> Jerry can swim, but can he *float* or *dive?*

Predicate adjective: A predicate adjective is an adjective in the predicate that points back to the subject, describing it or limiting it. A predicate adjective occurs only after *be* (*is, are, was, were*) or some other no-action verb like *become, appear, seem.*

Predicate complement. A predicate complement is a noun (or noun-equivalent) or an adjective used in the predicate to complete the meaning of the verb *be* or some other linking verb. See the next item and the preceding item.

> She is *redheaded* and *Irish.* She appears *clever.*

Predicate noun (also called **predicate nominative**). A predicate noun is a noun (or pronoun) in the predicate that points back to the subject, classifying it or explaining it. A predicate noun occurs only after *be* (*is, are, was, were*) or some other linking, no-action verb.

> John is *halfback.* They became *neighbors.*

Predication. A predication is a related word group containing a subject and a predicate; clauses and simple sentences are both predications.

Preposition (one of the eight parts of speech, literally *pre* = before +

positus = placed). A preposition is a connective that takes hold of a substantive and forms with it a modifying phrase. There are about seventy prepositions in the language. Here are the common ones:

of
with
by
for
like
to
at
on
up
down
in
into
from
over
under
through
between
among
above
below
since
about
until
after
before
across
beneath
beyond
beside
except
during
concerning
owing to
because of
in spite of

A prepositional phrase (a preposition plus its object, sometimes with modifiers) does the work of an adjective or an adverb and never anything else.

a man	*without fear*	prepositional phrase used as an adjective
differences	*between you and me*	
runs	*toward the enemy*	prepositional phrase used as an adverb
works	*for him and her*	

Pronominal adjective. See **Adjective.**

Pronoun (one of the eight parts of speech). A pronoun is a substitute for a noun. A noun for which a pronoun stands is called the **antecedent.**

> *Politicians* promise much, but *they* accomplish little.
> [*Politicians* is the antecedent of *they*.]

Personal pronouns: *I, you, he, she, it, we, they.*
Relative pronouns: *who, which, that.*
Interrogative pronouns: *who, which, what.*
Demonstrative pronouns: *this, that, these, those.*
Indefinite pronouns: *some, any, one, each, either, few, all, both,* etc.
Reflexive or intensive pronouns: I blamed *myself*. You *yourself* are at fault.

The uses of pronouns are in general the same as those of nouns.

In addition, relatives serve as connectives (the man *who* spoke), interrogatives ask questions (*Who* is the man?), and demonstratives point out (*That* is Van Lehr's secretary).

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
Person	*Nominative*	*Possessive*	*Objective*	*Nominative*	*Possessive*	*Objective*
1	I	my, mine	me	we	our, ours	us
2	you	your, yours	you	you	your, yours	you
3	he, she	his, her, hers	him, her	they	their, theirs	them
	it	its	it			

Sentence. A sentence is a group of words that contains a verb and its subject and whatever else is necessary to complete the thought. A part of a sentence built around a subject and a verb is called a **clause.**

A **main clause** (also called **independent clause**) is an independent statement; it could stand alone and form a sentence by itself.

A **subordinate clause** (also called **dependent clause**) is one that does the work of a single part of speech (adjective, adverb, or noun).

Two main clauses: *The dog barked,* and *the thief ran.*

Subordinate clause: The thief runs *when the dogs bark.*

A sentence of one independent statement is called **simple.**

Simple sentence {
The dogs barked at the thief.
Thieves and tramps fear dogs. [Compound subject]
Dogs bark and howl at night. [Compound predicate]

A sentence of two or more independent statements (two or more *main clauses*) is called **compound.**

Compound sentence
The thieves ran, and the dogs followed.
Dogs barked; thieves ran; excitement reigned.

A sentence containing a subordinate clause is called **complex.**

Complex sentence
When the dogs barked the thieves ran.
The night is cold, and the dogs bark *when the wind blows.* [This sentence is both complex and compound; it may be called a compound-complex sentence.]

Substantive is an inclusive term for a noun or a word or word-group that stands in the place of a noun (pronoun, clause, infinitive, gerund).

A **substantive phrase** is a phrase used as a noun:

From Dan to Beersheba is a term for the whole of Israel.

A **substantive clause** is a clause used as a noun:

That he owed the money is certain.

Syntax (also called **construction**). Syntax is the grammatical relation between words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence. Always ask "What work does this word or word-group do in the sentence?" The answer is its syntax or construction. See the first page of this article.

Verb (one of the eight parts of speech). A verb is a word or word-group which makes an assertion. It usually expresses action (Winds *blow*), but it may express being or mental state (It *is* true. She *sleeps*).

A **transitive verb** is one that requires a receiver of the act (*trans* means "across"; hence *transitive* means "action carried across"):

Our car *outruns* the train.

An **intransitive verb** is one that does not require a completer.

The streamliner *is whistling* for the signal.

The full meaning of a verb depends on the inflectional forms that show voice, mode, and tense.

Voice shows whether the subject performs or receives the action expressed by the verb.

The **active voice** shows the subject as actor:

Carter *loaded* the truck.

The **passive voice** shows the subject as acted upon:

The truck *was loaded* before daybreak.

Mode (also called *mood*) indicates the mood or manner in which the speaker views the action of the verb.

The **indicative mode** states or questions a fact.

She *does* not *dance*. *Has* he *gone?*

The **subjunctive mode** expresses a wish or a condition contrary to fact:

Would that I *were* there! If I *were* older, I'd be wiser.

The **imperative mode** expresses a command or an urgent request:

Take notes. *Save* all your papers. *Let* us pray.

Modal auxiliaries (*may, can, must, might, could, would, should,* etc.) are used with other verbs to form **modal aspects** of the verb. There are as many different aspects as there are auxiliaries. Aspects are sometimes spoken of as separate modes or called collectively the "potential mode."

Tense expresses the time of the action or existence. The tenses are the **present**, the **past**, the **future** (employing the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*), the **present perfect** (employing *have*), the **past perfect** (employing *had*), and the **future perfect** (employing *shall have* and *will have*).

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *SEE*

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Active Voice		Passive Voice	
Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
1. I see	we see	I am seen	we are seen
2. you see	you see	you are seen	you are seen
3. he sees	they see	he is seen	they are seen

Past Tense

1. I saw	we saw	I was seen	we were seen
2. you saw	you saw	you were seen	you were seen
3. he saw	they saw	he was seen	they were seen

Future Tense

1. I shall see	we shall see	I shall be seen	we shall be seen
2. you will see	you will see	you will be seen	you will be seen
3. he will see	they will see	he will be seen	they will be seen

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have seen	we have seen	I have been seen	we have been seen
2. you have seen	you have seen	you have been seen	you have been seen
3. he has seen	they have seen	he has been seen	they have been seen

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had seen	we had seen	I had been seen	we had been seen
2. you had seen	you had seen	you had been seen	you had been seen
3. he had seen	they had seen	he had been seen	they had been seen

Future Perfect Tense (seldom used)

1. I shall have seen	we shall have seen	I shall have been seen	we shall have been seen
2. you will have seen	you will have seen	you will have been seen	you will have been seen
3. he will have seen	they will have seen	he will have been seen	they will have been seen

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
Present Tense	if I, you, he see if we, you, they see	if I, you, he be seen if we, you, they be seen
Past Tense	if I, you, he saw if we, you, they saw	if I, you, he were seen if we, you, they were seen
Present Perfect	if I, you, he have seen if we, you, they have seen	if I, you, he have been seen if we, you, they have been seen

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present Tense See!

Verbal. A verbal is a form derived from a verb but used as a noun or a modifier.

A **participle** does the work of an adjective:

the *drifting* snow, the new-*fallen* snow.

A **gerund** does the work of a noun:

Drifting with the current is pleasant.

An **infinitive** does the work of a noun or a modifier:

To drift is pleasant. Work *to do*. Good enough *to eat*.

A verbal is not a main verb; it cannot take a subject or be used alone as a predicate. It cannot form a sentence. It does, however, retain some of the functions of a verb: it may take an object or be modified by an adverb. Hence it is no one part of speech but an "in between." Below are examples of verbals that have objects or modifiers:

object adverb
Infinitive: *To shoe* a horse well requires skill. [*To shoe a horse well* is an infinitive phrase.)

object

Gerund: In *shoeing* a horse the careful *trimming* of the hoof is important. [*In shoeing a horse* is a gerund phrase.]

adverb object

Participle: The old gray, continually *stamping* his feet, is hard to handle. [*Continually stamping his feet* is a participial phrase.]

SUMMARY OF VERBAL FORMS

		Present	Past
Infinitive	ACTIVE:	**to give**	to have given
	PASSIVE:	to be given	to have been given
Participle and Gerund	ACTIVE:	**giving**	having given
	PASSIVE:	being given	having been given **given** (short form, participle only)

Participle and gerund are identical in form (except that the short past passive is used as a participle only). Some grammarians do not use the term *gerund*. The three important forms are shown in boldfaced type.

DICTION

Conciseness

15. Be concise. Strike out unnecessary words and constructions.

Roundabout impersonal constructions like *there is:* There were three of us that had cars. [8 words.]
Improved: Three of us had cars. [5 words.]

Unnecessary *and* clause: There was a thin layer of snow next morning, and this was what made tracking easy. [16 words.]
Improved: Next morning a thin layer of snow made tracking easy. [10 words.]

Choppy sentences: The new farm buildings are of white stucco. They have red tile roofs. These colors make the buildings most attractive. [20 words.]
Improved: The new farm buildings, in white stucco with red tile roofs, are most attractive. [14 words.]

Humorous exaggeration: The canine quadruped was under suspicion of having obliterated by a process of mastication that article of sustenance which the butcher deposits at our posterior portal. [Such wordiness, as a humorous device, is not objectionable unless it is carried too far.]
Safer: The dog was suspected of having eaten the meat.

Overlapping thought (often called *tautology*): He had an entire monopoly of the whole fruit trade. [This is like saying "black blackbird."]
Right: He had a monopoly of the fruit trade.

LIST OF OVERLAPPING EXPRESSIONS

(Each has one or more unnecessary words.)

this here
where at
return back
ascend up
repeat again
biography of his life
good benefits
fellow playmates
Halloween evening
important essentials
endorse on the back
necessary requisite
total effect of all this
connect up
meet up with
combined together
perfectly all right
utter absence of
quite round
circular in form
big in size
many in number
strict accuracy
absolutely annihilated
still continue to
absolutely new creation

EXERCISE

Strike out every superfluous word, and make the following sentences simple and exact.

1. The rain was hardly over with when we went for a walk.
2. I heard a report that Miss Carson she will look after your rentals.
3. There are invariably people in the world who always want to get something for nothing.
4. A great per cent of stenographers lack the ability of being able to spell well.
5. This is the house that was constructed and erected by a young fellow who went by the common name of Jack.
6. We have told our agent that when he is in Platteville he should call on you.
7. In this magazine you read of the lives of men who have made their life a success.

8. Later the name was changed, and then it was called "The Poplar Corners."
9. This girl is impulsive in her nature, doing things on the impulse of the moment instead of thinking before she acts.
10. It is a good plan to follow if one would like to be able to develop his memory to make it a rule to learn a few lines of poetry every night before going to bed.
11. This argument contains the implication that there is nothing serious left in life, and that to think about the serious side of the aspect of things would be time wasted.
12. We beheld that incomparable body of water, Lake Placid, just as the day was dawning in fiery splendor in the east.
13. Both of the managers agreed that advertising as an element in their business was a paying element.
14. Turlock is an agricultural center, being located in the midst of a farming district.
15. That man who is at the desk is Mr. Thomas. He is the man who designed the buildings that were used in the exposition that was held here last year.
16. The poor, for instance take the people in mining towns who grow up in an environment of rough surroundings, are sometimes healthier than the rich people are.
17. There is a need in the farming industry for better cooperation among the farmers; it is a vital necessity for all interests concerned.
18. Seabold caught sight of a dog. It was a small dog. It was also a pug. It was barking at him. He disliked dogs. More than any other dog, he disliked a small pug dog.
19. In regard to our correspondence we should make each letter correct and courteous and efficient and one that will hurt no one's feelings and one that will give all the information that is desired and that will not have errors in it.

20. In a study of Mexico one is impressed with all the many resources of which she is possessed. It is her mineral deposits which are lavish that aid very materially in making Mexico a land of wealth.

Repetition

A. UNGRAMMATICAL REPETITION OF AN ELEMENT*

16A. Do not, in violation of grammar, repeat a term or insert an equivalent term after it. (An appositive of course does not violate grammar. Right: Gladys, *our secretary*, will send out the bulletins.)

Double subject: George Landon he marched in front. [Omit *he*.]

Double modifier: Hand me that there coat hanger. [Omit *there*.]

Connective repeated: He resolved that when he could that he would. [Omit the second *that*.]

Pronoun repeated: It was an agreement to which all of them were parties to it. [Omit *to it*.]

Double object: Whatever she sings, she sings it well. [Omit *it*.)

Double negative: The pilot couldn't hardly see.** [Omit either *n't* or *hardly*.]

Exercise

1. She thinks that if the money can be raised that the club will buy a piano.

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* For the needless repetition of an entire idea see **43B**. For faulty repetition in defining terms see **42A**. For unpleasant repetition of a sound or an inflectional form see **45C**. For slovenly or confusing repetition of *and*, *so*, or *but* see **3** and **3**, Note. For repetition as a means of emphasis see **48F**.

** In a double negative the second term not only repeats the first, but in logic cancels it. See **41**.

2. Of all these cases only three of them contained bad fruit.
3. Soap when added to hard water, it combines with salts to form an insoluble lime compound.
4. Maybe if he gave more thought to his work, maybe it would go better.
5. After the director sets the tempo through two bars the band then begins to play.

B. AWKWARD OR NEEDLESS REPETITION

B. Except to gain force or clearness, do not repeat a word or phrase. Get rid of recurring expressions (1) by substituting equivalent expressions, (2) by using pronouns more liberally, or (3) by rearranging the sentence so as to say once what has awkwardly been said twice.

Equivalent expressions to be found: *Just* as we were half way down the lake, *just* off Milwaukee, we *began* to feel a slight motion of the ship and the wind *began* to freshen.

Better: Just as we were half way down the lake, *opposite* Milwaukee, we *began* to feel a slight motion of the ship, for the wind *had* freshened.

Pronouns to be sought: The *Law Building*, the *Commerce Building*, and the *Science Building* are close together. The *Commerce Building* is south of the *Law Building*, and the *Science Building* is south of the *Commerce Building*. The *Law Building* is the oldest of the three *buildings*. The *Commerce Building* is the newest.

Better: The *Law*, *Commerce*, and *Science Buildings* are close together in a row. *The first of these* is the northernmost and the oldest. South of *it* stands the *Commerce Building*, *which* is the newest.

Material to be rearranged and condensed: The *autumn* is my favorite of all the *seasons*. While *autumn* in the city is not such a pleasant *season* as *autumn* in the country, yet even in the *city* my preference will always be for *autumn*.

Better: My favorite season is autumn. I like it best in the country, but even in the city it is the best time of the year.

Exercise

1. He is a great friend of boys, and views things from the boys' point of view.
2. The parts of the table are not put together in the factory, but the different parts are shipped in different shipments.
3. In order to convince you that the present management of farms is inefficient, I shall give some examples of inefficiency in farm management on some farms with which I am acquainted.
4. Even an unskilled angler, even when conditions are bad, may make a good catch. But such luck hardly lasts through the second day, even.
5. If a piece of steel is kept hot for several seconds, it will lose some of its hardness. If kept hot longer, it will lose more of its hardness. Along with losing its hardness it will lose its brittleness. If the piece of steel is heated continually, it will lose nearly all its hardness and brittleness. In other words, it will lose its "temper."

C. DESIRABLE REPETITION

C. Do not fail to use elements you need, even though you have used them before. It is better to repeat a word or expression than to avoid it awkwardly or misleadingly.

Noun not repeated: All week I had longed to see the elephants, and now at the largest of quadrupeds I was staring. [Because the writer does not like to repeat *elephants* he too obviously strains for a synonym.]

Simpler and more effective: All week I had longed to see the elephants, and now I was staring at them.

Pronoun not repeated: That is a trend in painting about which people grow angry and denounce. [Because *which* is not repeated the reader may suppose at first that *about which* accompanies *denounce*.]

Right: That is a trend in painting about which people grow angry and which they denounce.

Copula not repeated: There were thirty singers in the choir and dressed exactly alike. [Because *were* is not repeated it is used in a double capacity—as a main verb before *singers* and as an auxiliary before *dressed*.]

Right: There were thirty singers in the choir, and they were dressed exactly alike. [Or, using one predication] In the choir were thirty singers, dressed exactly alike.

The idea of a verb not repeated: Habit grips a person in much the same way as an octopus. [As habit grips an octopus?]

Clear: Habit grips a person in much the same way as an octopus does.

Article not repeated: After the death of the vice-president and cashier, the depositors became alarmed. [Did one man die, or did two?]

Clear: After the death of the vice-president and of the cashier, the depositors became alarmed. [Or] After the death of the vice-president, who was also the cashier, the depositors became alarmed.

Preposition not repeated: He was regarded as a hero by all who had known him at school, and especially his old schoolmates.

16

Clear: He was regarded as a hero by all who had known him at school, and especially by his old schoolmates.

Sign of the infinitive not repeated: He wishes to join hands with those who love justice and end needless suffering.
Clear: He wishes to join hands with those who love justice and to end needless suffering.

Conjunction not repeated: The editor insists that the materials are shoddy, and the company should be prosecuted.
Clear: The editor insists that the materials are shoddy, and that the company should be prosecuted.

Note.—Elements need not be repeated where their omission causes neither awkwardness nor obscurity.
Modifier not repeated: Shall we inspect his cattle and hogs?

Subject and verb not repeated: At the Friday matinee the attendance is five hundred; at the Saturday matinee, a thousand.

Exercise

1. I was better pleased with the canary than the parrot.
2. These principles have been tested and endured.
3. My ticket was for Philadelphia. In the City of Brotherly Love I soon found myself.
4. It is not necessary that a person know music as a science, but be able to listen to it.
5. There stand the unsightly boxes which the residents bring to the curb every Monday and contain all sorts of rubbish.

EXERCISE

Correct any ungrammatical or displeasing repetitions. Rephrase any sentences which are awkward or obscure because expressions have not been repeated.

1. Everything he worked at he made it pay.

2. Don't you think New Orleans picturesque? I think the Crescent City is one of the most picturesque cities in America.
3. We try hard to repair the frontispiece and spoil the book.
4. There are great opportunities in the field of science, and a scientist who makes a mark in the world of science makes a mark for himself everywhere.
5. I looked anxiously about for my father. At length down the street my paternal ancestor came.
6. The old sailor likes to stand where the cliffs rise from the sea and gaze through a telescope.
7. While the practical man is learning skill in the practical world, the college man is developing a mentality which will surpass that of the practical man when the college man learns the skill of the practical man.
8. Whatever he gives he has earned it by hard work.
9. The place is often visited by fisherman who catch some strange varieties of fish and especially summer tourists.
10. At the secondhand dealer's is a gate-leg table which mother admires and finally has said she will buy it.

The Exact Word or Idiom

A. THE EXACT WORD

17A. Find the exact word. Do not be content with a loose or approximate expression of your thought.

Inexact noun: Promptness is an *item* which a manager should possess [use *quality*].

Loose adjective and adverb: He looked *awfully funny* when I told him he had made a mistake [use *surprised*].

Undiscriminating verb: It was an old building *fixed* into a garage [use *made over*].

Overworked phrase: Pythagoras studied mathematics, and made valuable discoveries *along that line* [use *in this field*].

Make a study of synonyms (interchangeable words). Choose the word which expresses your meaning precisely.

Specific Words to Replace Overworked Ones

Find accurate words to replace overworked ones thus:
For *proposition:* transaction, venture, suggestion, offer
For *nice:* neat, delicious, pleasant, dainty, well-balanced
For *said:* admitted, interrupted, inquired, declared, thundered

Do not use these words excessively or carelessly:
thing, line, factor, proposition, lots, fun, nice, fine, funny, keen, cute, dumb, grand, swell, rotten, perfectly, literally, absolutely, awfully, terrible, get, say, do, go, fix

Use active, specific verbs whenever possible in place of inert verbs like *is, was, were, could be seen.* Use picture-making nouns and exact modifiers.

Inactive: A Ford could be seen on the highway.
Better: { An old model T spluttered and chugged down the road.
A shiny new Ford whizzed along the highway.

Vague: Miss Adams was talking to old Mrs. Pettit.
Better: { Miss Adams cackled nervously to old Mrs. Pettit.
Miss Adams soothed old Mrs. Pettit with gossip.

Vague: A group of pool hall bums were out in front.
Better: { A group of bums lounged against the pool hall.
Pool hall bums cluttered the sidewalk.

Trite or Hackneyed Expressions

Avoid outworn tags from everyday speech (*the worse for wear, had the time of my life*), stale phrases from newspapers (*taken into custody*), forced humorous substitutions (*paternal ancestor*), forced synonyms (*gridiron heroes*), conventional fine writing (*reigns supreme*), oft-repeated euphemisms (*pass away* for *die*), and overworked quotations from literature (*footprints on the sands of time*).

LIST OF TRITE EXPRESSIONS

along these lines
meets the eye
feathered songsters
a long-felt want
the last sad rites
doomed to disappointment
at one fell swoop
trees stood like sentinels
method in his madness
tired but happy
hoping you are the same
nipped in the bud
seething mass of humanity
specimen of humanity
with bated breath
green with envy
too full for utterance
conspicuous by its absence
sadder but wiser
last but not least
a goodly number
budding genius
the plot thickens
beggars description
a dull thud
silence broken only by
wended their way
abreast of the times
with whom they come in contact
exception proves the rule
as luck would have it
more easily imagined than described
the proud possessor
a pugilistic encounter
all nature seemed to

Exercise

1. One thing about these shoes is their good wearing faculties.
2. It was certainly nice of you to remember me so nicely at Christmas.
3. This little number is very cute even if Joe does say it's dumb.
4. A man could be seen on the sidewalk. He was going slowly.
5. The first division of success in life is health.

B. THE EXACT IDIOM

B. Make your speech and writing conform to English idiom. An idiom is a combination of words favored by usage but not easily explained by the usual rules or by the separate meanings of the words. "I enjoy to read" is wrong not because the words offend logic or grammar but merely because people do not conventionally make that combination of words. "I like to read" and "I enjoy reading" are good idiom.

Faulty Idioms	*Correct Idioms*
in the city Toledo	in the city of Toledo
in the year of 1920	in the year 1920
I hope you a good time	I wish you a good time
the Reverend Hopkins	the Reverend Mr. Hopkins
stay to home	stay at home
different than	different from
independent from	independent of
in search for	in search of
enamored with	enamored of
listen at	listen to
comply to	comply with
win out	win

Observe that many idioms are concerned with prepositions. Make sure that a verb or adjective is accompanied by the right preposition. Study the following list of correct idioms:

according to (rules)
accord with (a person)

accused by (a person)
accused of (a theft)

agree with (a person)
agree to (a proposal)
agreeable to

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angry at (a condition)
angry with (a person)

careful about (an affair)
careful of (one's money)

convenient for (a purpose)
convenient to (a person)

correspond to (things)
correspond with (persons)

part from (a person)
part with (a thing)

wait for (a person or thing)
wait on (a customer)

Mixed Idioms

Avoid a compromise between two idioms. That is, do not begin one idiom and shift to a second before the first is completed (see pages 20-21).

> Faulty: Secretary Baker granted Governor Lister the *privilege to use* troops from Camp Lewis. [*Privilege of using* and *permission to use* are good idiom.]

Idiomatic Use of Articles

Note.—Use articles idiomatically, following usage.

Article necessary for the sake of idiom:

> Wrong: No country made more rapid growth than United States in nineteenth century.
>
> Right: No country made more rapid growth than the United States in the nineteenth century.

Article not required by idiom:

> Wrong: Any such a person . . . That kind of a man . . . A half an hour . . .
>
> Right: Any such person . . . That kind of man . . . A half hour [or] Half an hour . . .

Exercise

1. About a half of an hour ago he said he wasn't going to do any such of a thing. Now he's doing it.
2. In the year of 1497 Vasco da Gama set out in search for a new route around Africa to India.
3. He has no right to be angry at me after I complied to all his funny ideas.
4. The fins of that kind of a fish correspond with the wings of a bird.
5. Take the money or the medal, whichever you rather.

Exercise

1. It's funny how often the lack of a good punter wins out for the other side.
2. With introductions to all the exclusive men in the plant I yet could obtain no position along the swell line I was enamored with.
3. After I get things fixed here you will see there is method in my madness.
4. A sea of faces met his eye and the budding genius fled, a sadder but wiser boy.
5. Reverend Ashworth's interesting and instructive talk, which was well worth hearing, was enjoyed by all.
6. All the family are fine and having a wonderful time; this is a grand place to go to. The meals are awfully good, and the beds are grand, and it's lots of fun.
7. As luck would have it, we were already working along the same identical lines.
8. You needn't agree with a thing just because it was said in United States Senate.
9. The most interesting points of Mexico are the inhabitants and their government, education, and religion.
10. As we wended our way homeward, the proud possessors of a baby rabbit and a wounded hoot owl, we must have been weird specimens of humanity to view, but it was a case where ignorance is bliss.

Good Use

18. Use with caution words which the dictionary brands as dialectal, colloquial, or slang. Many persons have strong prejudices against such words and make harsh judgments about the social origins of anyone who uses them carelessly or often.

DIALECTAL WORDS

Dialectal words (sometimes called *provincialisms*) are words restricted to the speech of a district, with local peculiarities. Though it is unjust and unkind to regard them as illiterate blunders, they are so often used by illiterate persons that the social prejudice against them is often strong.

all the further
awful (= very)
bursted
complected
nowheres
reckon (= suppose)
scairt
without (= unless)
undoubtably

COLLOQUIAL WORDS

Colloquial means used in colloquy or speech—more appropriate in informal conversation than in writing. Words that are conspicuously colloquial are labelled *Coll.* or *Colloq.* in dictionaries so that we may be on our guard, using them where they will fit in instead of striking discords.

cussed
plumb crazy
contraption
a sight of
a swig
tote
tuckered out
gumption

SLANG

Slang is language which comprises certain widely current terms having a forced, fantastic, or grotesque meaning, or exhibiting eccentric humor or fancy. Though sometimes it satisfies a need and becomes established in a language, in most instances it is short-lived. The least desirable types of slang are these:

Expressions of vulgar origin (from criminal classes, the prize ring, the vaudeville circuit, etc.): *get pinched, down and out, took the count, bum hunch, to take it on the lam, get across.*

Language strained or distorted for novel effect: *performed the feed act at a bang-up gastronomic emporium, bingled a tall drive that made the horsehide ramble out into center garden.*

Blanket expressions used as substitutes for thinking: *swell, lousy, fierce, hot.*

This blanket type of slang is most to be regretted. It leads to a mental habit of phonographic repetition, with no resort to independent thinking. If a man really desires to use slang, let him invent new expressions every day and make them fit the specific occasion.

ILLITERATE OR UNGRAMMATICAL FORMS

Avoid words and expressions which the dictionary does not print. Avoid words which the dictionary marks as *illiterate, vulgar, low,* or the like. See the Glossary of Faulty Diction in the next article.

Exercise

Recast the sentences, using more suitable language.

1. The bunch will be thrilled to death when they hear you have accepted their invite.
2. The light-complected actress is suspicioned of burgling one of the dressing rooms.
3. I prefer homemade bread to the boughten kind; it kinda has a different taste.

4. Your new dress is a honey, and the color is swell for you.
5. I'll croak whoever pinched my new pencil and busted my pen.
6. Who's the jane you were sporting last night?
7. There was just a hayseed at the lunch counter when I got there; pretty quick a little gob came in.
8. This is sure a tasty meal, Mrs. Catter, and I thank you muchly.
9. He's a real he-man and packs a wallop that would lay you out.
10. This week we're featuring an extra special combination, and we'll take a try at contacting each customer personally in her home.

Glossary of Faulty Diction

19. Use words intelligently and avoid faulty diction.

Accept and **except.** *Accept* means *to receive; except* as a verb means *to exclude* and as a preposition means *with the exception of.*

Affect and **effect.** *Affect* is not used as a noun; *effect* as a noun means *result.* As verbs, *affect* means *to influence in part; effect* means *to accomplish totally.* "His story affected me deeply." "The Russians effected a revolution." *Affect* also has a special meaning, *to feign.* "She had an affected manner."

Ain't. Never correct. Say *I'm not, you* [*we, they*] *aren't, he* [*she, it*] *isn't.*

All the farther, all the faster. Dialectal. Use *as far as, as fast as* in such sentences as "This is all the farther I can go."

Allusion and **illusion.** *Allusion* means a *reference; illusion* means a *deceptive appearance.* "A Biblical allusion." "An optical illusion."

Already and **all ready.** *Already* means *by this time* or *beforehand; all ready* means *wholly ready* or *every one ready.* "I have already invited him." "Dinner is all ready." "We are all ready for dinner."

Alright. Not in good use. Use *all right.*

Altogether and **all together.** *Altogether* means *wholly, entirely; all together* means *collectively, in a group.* "He is altogether honest." "The King sent the people all together into exile."

And which. A conflict between coordination and subordination. Wrong: This is a vital problem and which we cannot study too closely. Right: This is a vital problem, which we cannot study too closely. Also right: This is a problem which is vital and which we cannot study too closely.

A good rule of thumb is, "Do not use *and which* unless you have already used *which* in the sentence." But an exception must be made for sentences like the following: "He told me what countries he had visited, and which ones he liked most."

Any place, anyplace. Colloquial. Use the adverb *anywhere* or the adverbial phrase *in any place.*

As. (a) Incorrect in the sense of *that* or *whether*. "I don't know *whether* (not *as*) I can tell you." "Not *that* (not *as*) I know." (b) *As . . . as* are correlatives. *Than* must not replace the second *as*. Right: "As good as or better than his neighbors." "As good as his neighbors, or better [than they]." See *Like*.

Auto. An abbreviation not desirable in formal writing.

Awful. Means *filling with awe* or *filled with awe. Awful* is slang when used in the sense of *uncivil*, *serious*, or *ludicrous*, or (in the adverbial form) in the sense of *very, extremely.*

Balance. Colloquial when used in the sense of *remainder*.

Because. Not to be used for *the fact that. "The fact that* (not *because*) he is absent is no reason why we should not proceed."

Between. Ordinarily used of two persons or things, in distinction to *among*, which is used of more than two. But in certain collective relationships *among* does not convey the idea intended and *between* should be employed. Multiple contrast: "There are marked temperamental differences between Slavs, Teutons, and Latins." Each item considered severally in relation to each of the others: "Conferences between Ordway, Cantwell, and Leaman clarified all uncertainties as to their respective claims." Reciprocal action: "An alliance was effected between Germany, Japan, and Italy."

Blame on. Colloquial for *put the blame on* or *blame.* Faulty: "Don't blame it on me." Better: "Don't blame me."

Borned. A monstrosity for *born.* "I was *born* (not *borned*) in 1917."

Bursted. Dialectal. The past tense of *burst* is the same as the present.

Bust or **busted.** Vulgar for *burst.* Right: "Yesterday the water pipe burst." "The bank failed."

But what. *That* is often preferable. "I do not doubt *that* (not *but what*) he is honest."

Can and **may.** *Can* means *to be able; may* means *to have permission. Can* for *may* has a certain colloquial standing.

Cannot help but. A confusion of *can but* and *cannot help.* "I can but believe you"; or "I cannot help believing you"; not "I cannot help but believe you."

Caused by. Not to be used to refer to a verb or to the diffused idea of a clause (see Dangling Participle). Wrong: "He was disappointed, caused by the lateness of the train." Right: "His disappointment was caused by the lateness of the train."

Claim. Means *to demand as a right.* Colloquial for *maintain* or *assert.*

Complected. Dialectal. *Light-complexioned* and *dark-complexioned,* though correct, are in certain instances long and awkward. Prefer *fair* and *dark.*

Considerable. Colloquial when used as an adverb. "He talked *considerably* (not *considerable*) about it."

To "contact." Lazy slang for *interview, talk to, discuss with, get in touch with, see.*

Could of. An illiterate form arising from slovenly pronunciation. Use *could have.* Avoid also *may of, must of, would of.*

Credible and **creditable.** *Credible* means *capable or worthy of belief; creditable* means *meritorious.*

Different than. *Different from* is correct. *Than* is a conjunction. The idea of separation implied in *different* calls for a preposition, rather than a word of comparison.

Disremember. Not in good use.

Done. A gross error when used as the past tense of *do,* or as an adverb meaning *already.* "*I did it* (not *I done it*)." "I've *already* (not *done*) got my lessons."

Don't. A contraction for *do not;* never to be used for *does not.* The contraction of *does not* is *doesn't.*

Drownded. Vulgar for *drowned.*

Due to. To be used only when it refers definitely to a noun. Faulty: "He refused the offer, due to his father's opposition." Right: "His refusal of the offer was due to his father's opposition." The noun *refusal* should be used instead of the verb *refused.* Then *due* will have a definite reference. Also correct: "He refused the offer because of his father's opposition."

Emigrate and **immigrate.** *Emigrate* means *to go out from a country; immigrate* means *to enter into a country.* The same man may be an *emigrant* when he leaves Europe and an *immigrant* when he enters America.

Enthuse. Colloquial. Not in good use in formal writing.

Etc. An abbreviation for the Latin *et cetera,* meaning *and other* [things]. *Et* means *and;* therefore avoid *and etc.* Do not misspell the abbreviation by transposing *t* and *c.*

Etc. should be followed (as well as preceded) by a comma, even when inserted after a single word. "You will find stationery, etc., in the observation car."

Expect. Means *to look forward to.* Hardly correct in the sense of *suppose.*

Fine. Use cautiously as an adjective, and not at all as an adverb. Seek a more exact word.

Fix. Overused and often abused. Choose a more exact word when you can.

Former. Means the first or first named of two. Not to be used when more than two have been named. The corresponding word is *latter.*

For to. Incorrect for *to.* "I want *you* (not *for you*) to listen carefully." "He made up his mind *to* (not *for to*) accept."

Gent. A vulgar abbreviation of *gentleman.*

Good. An adjective, not an adverb. Wrong: "He did good in mathematics." Right: "He did well in mathematics." "He did good work in mathematics."

Gotten. An old form now usually replaced by *got* except in such expressions as *ill-gotten gains.*

Guess. Expresses conjecture. Colloquial for *think, suppose,* or *expect* unless implying uncertainty.

Had of. Illiterate. "I wish I *had known* (not *had of known*) about it."

Had ought. Illiterate. "He *ought* (not *had ought*) to have resigned." "We *oughtn't* (not *hadn't ought*) to make this error."

Hanged and **hung.** *Hanged* is the correct past tense of *hang* in the sense *put to death, hanged on the gallows; hung* is the correct past tense for the general meaning *suspended.*

Hardly. Not to be used with a negative. See **41.**

Healthy and **healthful.** *Healthy* means *having health; healthful* means *giving health.* "Milk is healthful." "The climate of Colorado is healthful." "The boy is healthy." In colloquial usage the distinction is not always observed.

Hygienic and **sanitary.** Both words mean *pertaining to health. Hygienic* is used when the condition is a matter of personal habits or rules; *sanitary* is used when the condition is a matter of surroundings (water supply, food supply, sewage disposal, etc.) or the relations of numbers of people.

In. Often misused for *into.* "He jumped *into* (not *in*) the pond."

Instants and **instance.** *Instants* means *small portions of time; instance* means *an example.*

Intensives. Good writers do not ordinarily use *too, so,* or *such* by itself as an intensive. Instead they do one of three things: (1) omit the intensive altogether (probably the best treatment); (2) employ an intensive like *very, much, extremely,* or *indeed;* or (3) complete the thought of *too* with a following phrase, or the thought of *so* or *such* with a following *that* clause.

> Informal: The story was too absurd. Coal whined so piteously. Wilberforce is such a fast walker.
>
> Better (method 1 or 2): The story was absurd. Coal whined piteously. Wilberforce is an exceedingly fast walker.
>
> Better (method 3): The story was too absurd for belief. Coal whined

so piteously that I let him in. Wilberforce is such a fast walker that he almost meets himself coming back.

It's. Means *it is;* not to be written for the possessive *its.*

Kind of. (a) Colloquial when used to modify adjectives or verbs. "He was *somewhat* (not *kind of*) lean." "She *half suspected* (not She *kind of suspected*) what was going on." (b) When using with a noun, do not follow by *a*. "That *kind of* man"; not "That *kind* of *a* man."

Lady. A genteelism in many uses. Prefer *woman* in such expressions as these: "A woman I know," "The woman in blue," "A saleswoman" (not *saleslady*, *washlady*).

Later and **latter.** *Later* means *more late; latter* means *the second in a series of two*. "The latter" is used in conjunction with the phrase "the former."

Lead and **led.** *Led* is the past tense of the verb *to lead*. *Lead* is the present tense.

Learn and **teach.** *Learn* means *to get knowledge of; teach* means *to give knowledge of* or *to*. "The instructor *teaches* (not *learns*) me physics." "He learns his lessons easily."

Leave and **let.** *Leave* means *to abandon; let* means *to permit.*

Less and **fewer.** *Less* refers to quantity; *fewer* refers to number. "He has *fewer* (not *less*) horses than he needs."

Liable, likely, apt. *Likely* merely predicts; *liable* conveys the additional idea of harm or responsibility. *Apt* applies usually to persons, in the sense of *having natural capability*, and sometimes to things, in the sense of *fitting, appropriate*. "It is likely to be a pleasant day." "I fear it is liable to rain." "He is liable for damages." "He is an apt lad at his books." "That is an apt phrase."

Lie and **lay.** *Lay*, a transitive verb, means *to cause to lie*. "I lay the book on the table and it lies there." A source of confusion between the two words is that the past tense of *lie* is *lay:*

I lie down to sleep.	I lay the book on the table.
I lay there yesterday.	I laid it there yesterday.
I have lain here for hours.	I have laid it there many times.

Like, as, as if. *Like* is in good use as a preposition, and may be followed by a noun; *as* is in good use as a conjunction, and may be followed by a clause. "He is tall like his father." "He is tall, as his father is." "It looks *as if* (not *like*) it were going to rain."

Literally. Do not use where you plainly do not mean it, as in the sentence, "I was literally tickled to death."

Locate. Colloquial for *settle* or *establish oneself.*

Lose and **loose.** *Lose* means *to cease having; loose* as a verb means *to set free,* and as an adjective, *free, not bound.*

Lose out. Not used in formal writing. Say *lose.*

Lots of. A mercantile term which has a dubious colloquial standing. Not in good literary use for *many* or *much.*

Might of. A vulgarism for *might have.*

Most. Colloquial for *almost. "Almost* (not *most*) all."

Neither. Used with *nor,* and not with *or.* "Neither the man whom his associates had suspected *nor* (not *or*) the one whom the police had arrested was the criminal." "She could neither paint a good picture *nor* (not *or*) play the violin well."

Nice. Means *delicate* or *precise. Nice* is used in a loose colloquial way to indicate general approval, but should not be so used in formal writing. Right: "He displayed nice judgment." "We had a *pleasant* (not *nice*) time."

Not . . . no, not never, not hardly. In early English the double negative was in good use. In modern English the notion has gained ground that "two negatives cancel each other," or make an affirmative. Thus *not nobody* now means *somebody,* and *not nowhere* suggests *somewhere.*

Nowhere near. Archaic and dialectal for *not nearly.*

Nowheres. Dialectal or vulgar.

O, Oh. *O* is ordinarily used with a noun in direct address; it is not separated from the noun by any marks of punctuation. *Oh* is ordinarily used as an interjection; it is followed by a comma or an exclamation point. *Oh* is sometimes used informally in direct address;

it is followed by a comma. "Hear, O king, what thy servants would say." "Oh, he's falling!" "Oh, Sam, Jim wants you."

Of. Do not use for *have* in such combinations as *should have, may have, ought to have.*

Off of. Illiterate. Use *off* alone. "He jumped *off* (not *off of*) the platform."

On account of. Do not use as a conjunction. "He is feeble on account of his age [not *on account of he is old*]."

One, one's; he, his. The interchanging of *he* and *his* with *one* and *one's* is condemned by the older rhetorics, but to some extent sanctioned by modern usage. "One can only do one's best" is right, but formal. "One can only do his best" is informal, but not strictly defensible. "A person can only do his best" is preferable to either.

Only. Place *only* where it cannot appear to modify the wrong word. Wrong: "He *only* spent ten dollars." Right: "He spent *only* ten dollars." Do not combine with *no* or *not*. Wrong: "He *isn't only* three years old." Right: "He *is only* three years old." Do not use in place of *but*. Wrong: "I would like to go *only* I haven't time." Right: " . . . *but* I haven't time."

Ought to of. A vulgarism for *ought to have.*

Over with. Colloquial for *over.*

Pants. *Trousers* is the approved term in polite usage. *Pants* (from *pantaloons*) has found some degree of colloquial and commercial acceptance.

Party. Slang when used for *a person,* except in legal phrases.

Phenomena. Plural. "It was an interesting *phenomenon* (not *phenomena*)."

Phone. A contraction not employed in formal writing. Say *telephone.*

Plenty. A noun; not in good use as an adjective or an adverb. "He had *plenty of* (not *plenty*) resources." "He had *resources in plenty* (not *resources plenty*)."

Practical and **practicable.** *Practical* means *not theoretical; practicable* means *capable of being put into practice.* "A practical man." "The arrangement is practicable."

Principal and **principle.** *Principal* as an adjective means *chief* or *leading; principle* as a noun means a *general truth* or *rule. Principal* as a noun means a *sum of money*, or the *chief official of a school.*

Proof and **evidence.** In a law court, *proof* is *evidence sufficient to establish a fact; evidence* is *whatever is brought forward in an attempt to establish a fact.* "The evidence against the prisoner was extensive but hardly proof of his guilt." In colloquial speech, *proof* is sometimes loosely used as a synonym for *evidence.*

Proposition. Means a *thing proposed.* Colloquial in the sense of *transaction, venture, commodity, convenience, difficulty, thesis,* or *doctrine.* "I will make this *proposition* [correct use]; he may accept it or not." "It is sure to be a paying *venture* [or *transaction* or *enterprise*, not *proposition*]."

Quiet and **quite.** *Quiet* is an adjective meaning *calm, not noisy; quite* is an adverb meaning *entirely* (avoid using as a synonym for *rather*).

Quite a. Colloquial in such expressions as *quite a while, quite a few, quite a number.*

Raise. Many persons feel that *rear* or *bring up* is preferable in speaking of children. "She *raised* sheep and *brought up* her seven children without help."

Rarely ever. Crude for *rarely, hardly ever.*

Real. Uncultivated, crude for *very* or *really.* "She was *very* (not *real*) intelligent." "He was *really* (not *real*) brave."

Remember of. Not to be used for *remember.*

Respectfully and **respectively.** *Respectfully* means *in a courteous manner; respectively* means *in a way proper to each.* "Yours *respectfully*" (not *respectively*). "He handed the commissions to Gray and Hodgins respectively."

Right smart and **Right smart of.** Dialectal.

Rise and **raise.** *Rise* is an intransitive verb, *raise* is a transitive verb. "I rise to go home." "I raise vegetables." "I raise the stone from the ground."

Said meaning *before-mentioned, already referred to.* Good use in legal language only.

Same. No longer used as a pronoun except in legal documents. "He saw her drop the purse and restored *it* (not *the same*) to her."

Scarcely. Not to be used with a negative.

Seldom ever. Illiterate for *seldom, hardly ever.*

Shall. Do not confuse with *will.* See **12B.**

Sight. *A sight* or *a sight of* is colloquial for *many, much, a great deal of.* "*A great many* (not *a sight*) of them."

Sit and **set.** *Set,* a transitive verb, means *to cause to sit.* "He sets it in the corner and it sits there." The past tense of *sit* is *sat.*

I sit down.	I always set it in its place.
He sat in this very chair.	I set it in its place yesterday.
He has sat there an hour.	I have always set it just here.

So. Not incorrect, but loose, vague, and often unnecessary.

(a) As an intensive, the frequent use of *so* has been christened "the feminine demonstrative." Hackneyed: "I was so surprised." Better: "I was much surprised." Or, "I was surprised."

(b) As a connective, the frequent use of *so* is a mark of amateurishness. *So* is an elastic word that covers a multitude of vague meanings. Language has need of such a word, and in many instances (especially when the relation between clauses is obvious and does not need to be pointed out) *so* serves well enough. Use it, but not as a substitute for more exact connectives. Beware of falling into the "*so* habit."

Abuse of *so* as a vague coordinating connective: So I went to call on Mrs. Woods, and so she told me about Mrs. White's new gown; so then I missed the car, and so of course our supper is late. [Strike out every *so.*]

Allowable on the colloquial level: I was excited, so I missed the target.

In expressing reason or result do not always begin with a main clause and follow it with a trailing *so* clause. It is better to strike out *so* and subordinate the first clause, thus:

Right: In my excitement I missed the target.
Right: Because I was excited I missed the target.
Right: Being excited, I missed the target.

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In expressing degree or manner prefer the form *so . . . that:*

Right: I was so excited that I missed the target.

Some. Not to be used as an adverb. "She was *somewhat* (not *some*) better the next day." Wrong: "He studied some that night." Right: "He did some studying that night."

Some place, someplace. Colloquial. Use the adverb *somewhere* or an adverbial phrase *in any place.*

Somewheres. Dialectal. Use *somewhere.*

Species. Has the same form in singular and plural. "He discovered a new *species* (not *specie*) of sunflower."

Stationary, stationery. *Stationary* is an adjective meaning *fixed; stationery* is a noun meaning *writing materials.*

Statue, stature, statute. *Statue* means a *carved or molded figure; stature* means *height; statute* means a *law.*

Such. (a) To be completed by *that*, rather than by *so that*, when a result clause follows. "There was such a crowd *that* (not *so that*) he did not find his friends." (b) To be completed by *as*, rather than by *that, who,* or *which,* when a relative clause follows. "I will accept such arrangements *as* (not *that*) may be made." "He called upon such soldiers *as* (not *who*) would volunteer for this service to step forward."

Superlatives should not be used as intensives. When they are used in making comparisons, the basis of the comparison should be supplied. Informal: This is the best fudge! She is the cleverest cat! Better: This is delicious fudge! She is a clever cat! [or *a remarkably clever cat*]. Also better: Of all the fudge I have ever tasted, this is the best.

Superior than. Not in good use for *superior to.*

Sure. Too colloquial when used as an adverb. "It *surely* (not *sure*) was pleasant." In answer to the question, "Will you go?" either *sure* or *surely* is correct, though *surely* is preferred. "[To be] sure." "[You may be] sure." "[I will] surely [go]."

Suspicion. A noun. Dialectal used as a verb.

Take and. Often unnecessary, sometimes crude. Redundant: "He took the ax and sharpened it." Better: "He sharpened the ax." Crude: "He took and nailed up the box." Better: "He nailed up the box."

Tend. In the sense *to look after,* takes a direct object without an interposed *to. Attend,* however, is followed by *to.* "The milliner's assistant *tends* (not *tends to*) the shop." "I shall *attend to* your wants in a moment."

That as an intensive. Colloquial with words of degree or extent: He caught a fish *that* long. Dialectal with words denoting quality or action: Your mother was *that* disturbed. Better: Your mother was greatly disturbed. [Or] Your mother was so disturbed that she couldn't rest.

That there. Illiterate for *that.* "I want *that* (not *that there*) box of berries."

Them. Not to be used as an adjective. "Those (not *them*) boys."

There were or **There was.** Avoid the unnecessary use. Crude: "There were seventeen senators voted for the bill." Better: "Seventeen senators voted for the bill."

These kind (or **sort**) and **Those kind** (or **sort**) are colloquial forms loosely used for *this kind, that kind. Kind* and *sort* are singular nouns and regularly take the singular adjectives *this, that*—not plural *these, those.* "Why do you buy *this kind* of shoes?" "I hate *that sort* of trousers."

This. Do not use *this* so loosely and vaguely that the reader fails to see what word or idea is referred to. See **5.**

Faulty: The managers told him they would increase his salary if he would represent them in South America. He refused this. Better: He refused this offer.

This here. Dialectal for *this.*

Those. Do not carelessly omit a relative clause after *those.* Faulty: "He is one of those talebearers." Better: "He is a talebearer." [Or] "He is one of those talebearers whom everybody dislikes."

Those kind, Those sort. Ungrammatical.

Till. Do not carelessly misuse for *when.* "I had scarcely strapped on my skates *when* (not *till*) Henry fell through an air hole."

Transpire. Means *to give forth* or *to become known.* Right: "The secret transpired." Many authorities object to the use of *transpire* for *occur.* Right: "The sale of the property *occurred* (not *transpired*) last Thursday."

Try. Colloquial when used as a noun.

Unique. Means *alone of its kind,* not *odd* or *unusual.*

United States. Ordinarily preceded by *the.* "The United States raised a large army." (Not "United States raised a large army.")

Up. Do not needlessly insert after such verbs as *end, rest, confess, settle.*

Used to could. Very crude. Say *used to be able to* or *once could.*

Very. Should be accompanied by *much* when used with the past participle. "He was *very much* (not *very*) pleased with his reception." "We were *much* (not *very*) inconvenienced by her visit."

Want to. Not to be used in the sense of *should, had better.* "You *should* (not *want to*) keep in good physical condition."

Way. Dialectal or colloquial when used for *away.* "*Away* (not *way*) below the average."

Ways. Colloquial for *way* in referring to distance. "A little *way* (not *ways*)."

When. (a) Not to be used for *that* in such a sentence as "It was in the afternoon that the races began." (b) A *when* clause is not to be used as a predicate noun. See **13B.**

Where. (a) Not to be used for *that* in such a sentence as "I see in the paper that our team lost the game." (b) A *where* clause is not to be used as a predicate noun. See **13B.**

Where at. Illiterate. "Where is he?" (not *Where is he at?*)

Which. Do not use for *who* or *that* in referring to persons. "The friends *who* (not *which*) had loved him in his boyhood were still faithful to him."

Who. Do not use unnecessarily for *which* or *that* in referring to animals or things.

Will. Do not confuse with *shall.* See **12B.**

Win out. Not used in formal writing or speaking.

Woods. The singular form should ordinarily be preferred. "*A wood* (not *A woods*)."

Would have. Do not use for *had* in *if* clauses. "If you *had* (not *would have*) spoken boldly, he would have granted your request."

Would of. A vulgarism for *would have.*

Yourself. Intensive or reflexive; do not use when the personal pronoun would suffice. "*You* (not *Yourself*) and your family must come."

You was. Illiterate. Use *You were* in both singular and plural.

Exercise in Correct Diction

Correct all errors due to faulty diction.

1. This is all the faster we can go without we unload some of our supplies.
2. We had less customers last month than during any similar period in our operations.
3. He expected a coaching position somewheres in Idaho.
4. Matilda wants us to leave her have charge of decorations.
5. The phosphorescence came bubbling into the water like there was a great fire below us.
6. A real bad criminal cannot be effected to a very great degree by the life in a prison.
7. I never knew before exactly what affect the explosion of a modern shell could have.
8. It isn't scarcely creditable that mild, dried-up looking Larkin has lead a double life all these years.
9. The redskin is not liable to tell you where the village lays.
10. A lone car traveled along the distant track like it was a black bug creeping around an ant hill.
11. I expect she sunburns badly, just like most light-complected persons do.

12. Andrew Jackson was borned and raised among these kind of sturdy backwoodsmen.
13. You hadn't ought to of claimed that this party is kind of proud of what he done.
14. He knew many people which were too poor to buy a whole ton of coal. Such people have always gotten their coal by the sackful.
15. The country folk call it a toad-frog, though a toad is different than a frog. I guess that most people don't know the difference, hardly.
16. You will enthuse over our unique hats, all copies of Paris models.
17. I suspicion this later blunder is the principle reason for his failure.
18. The balance of the time we spent in the five and ten, and that's all the farther we got on our shopping expedition.
19. In his answer to my ad he claims he is interested in our proposition, so I expect we might talk to him.
20. He is willing to locate anyplace where he can make a living.

SPELLING

No one is able to spell all unusual words on demand. But every one must spell correctly even unusual words in formal writing. That your spelling may be that of an educated person you must own and have instant access to a dictionary. The most comprehensive dictionaries are listed in article **50C**. If you cannot afford one of these you should buy a good abridged volume, such as *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (Fifth Edition), *Webster's Secondary School Dictionary*, *Funk and Wagnalls College Standard Dictionary* or *Desk Standard Dictionary*, *Macmillan's Modern Dictionary*, the *Winston Simplified Dictionary* (College Edition), or the *Oxford Concise Dictionary*.

Ready access to a dictionary, however, has one disadvantage to you in your spelling. You may depend upon the volume too much. The ideal course is to consult your dictionary every time you really need it, but to teach yourself to need it seldom. You can gain a large degree of independence from it by means of (a) careful observation and (b) a clear knowledge of certain rules.

Spelling through Observing

20. Be alert to the spelling of individual words, especially of the words you yourself write. Observe what the combination of letters is. Understand, so far as you can, why these particular letters are employed. Really pay heed to the spelling, and make a business of fixing it in mind.

A. RECORDING YOUR OWN ERRORS

A. Record in correct form the words you yourself misspell. Keep and at need add to the list. Master the spelling of these words; one method is to copy attentively on a separate sheet at least five of them every day.

Correct spelling comes from concentration. Concentrate therefore upon a few words at a time—the words you actually misspell. The list will be shorter than you think. It may comprise not more than twenty or thirty words. Unless you are extraordinarily deficient, it will certainly not comprise more than a hundred or a hundred and fifty. But these words trip you again and again. To learn how to spell them you must first of all identify them—must hunt them out as enemies who are striking at you unrecognized. The work of a single afternoon will bring most of them together and give you a good start toward mastering them. Frequent short but earnest reviews, and constant care when you write, will extend your mastery and make it permanent.

B. SPELLING BY EAR

B. Make yourself hear the exact sound of words. Often misspelling results from heedless pronunciation. Listen therefore to speakers who articulate carefully. Yourself learn to bring out the precise sound values of letters and syllables.*

---

* Sound is not always a sufficient guide to spelling. Reformed or simplified spelling attempts, in the case of certain words, to have old spellings replaced by new ones which conform to sound. Not all the recommendations have won equal degrees of acceptance. Thus according to *Webster's New International Dictionary* (Second Edition) the forms *quartet* and *program* are now preferred, *altho* and *catalog* are recognized but not preferred, *enuf* and *thru* are recognized as of reformed standing only, and *tho* is not recognized at all. If you employ simplified forms, you must employ them consistently.

Omitted sounds

(Be sure to put in all the sounds.)

can*d*idate
consider*a*ble
cur*i*osity
ever*y*body
gener*al*ly
goin*g*
gover*n*ment
hist*o*ry
lab*o*ratory
len*g*th
li*a*ble
liter*a*ture
quan*t*ity
represen*ta*tive
soph*o*more

Extra sounds

(Be sure not to add any sounds.)

athletics
disastrous
drowned
entrance
grievous
hindrance
jealous
lightning
mischievous
momentous
original
problem
remembrance
similar
suffrage

Transposed sounds

(Be sure not to switch the sounds.)

ca*val*ry
child*ren*
hund*red*
irre*l*e*v*ant
*per*form
*per*spiration
*pre*fer
pre*j*u*d*ice
*pre*scription
tra*g*e*d*y

Sounds Between Syllables *

(Note whether the consonant sound at the junction of syllables is given once or twice.**)

di*s*-appoint
di*s*-*s*atisfy
de-*f*er
di*f*-*f*er

re*c*-o*m*-*m*end
a*c*-*com*-*m*odate
a*c*-*c*u-*m*ulate
a-*c*ross

o-*m*i*s*-*s*ion
co*m*-*m*i*s*-*s*ion
Bri*t*-ish***
Bri-*t*annica***

wri*t*-er****
wri*t*-ing****
wri*t*-*t*en****

(*Four spelling lists: 55 words*)

---

* For the principles by which words may be divided into syllables, see **54G.** For writing compounds solid, separate, or with hyphens see **23** (particularly the special word lists at the close). One of the surest ways to learn a word both structurally and orthographically is to spell it syllable by syllable, pronouncing

Footnotes for **, ***, and **** on next page.

C. DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN WORDS THAT SOUND ALIKE

C. Master the spelling of words which are alike in sound but different in meaning. Make spelling conform to the sense intended.

(The following list contains a few words whose resemblance to each other is visual rather than auditory.)

accept, except
access, excess
advice, advise
affect, effect
all together, altogether
allusion, illusion
aloud, allowed
altar, alter
angel, angle
aught, ought

---

after each syllable the sound of that syllable and the sound of the entire word to that point. Example:

i-n, in, in-
c-o-m, com, incom-
p-r-e, pre, incompre-
h-e-n, hen, incomprehen-
s-i, si, incomprehensi-
b-i-l, bil, incomprehensibil-
i, i, incomprehensibili-
t-y, ty, incomprehensibility

** Often the ability to distinguish the main word from the prefix is further insurance of correct spelling. Examples: *dis-appoint*, *dis-satisfy*. Often the ability to distinguish the main word from the suffix is further insurance. Examples: *open-ness*, *civil-ize*.

*** The shift in the accent accounts for the shift in the position of *t*.

**** Note that spelling often affects pronunciation, just as pronunciation often affects spelling. Normally a doubled consonant makes a preceding vowel short, while a single consonant makes it long. Examples:

planned	letting	ridding	knotted	occurred
planed	completing	riding	noted	cured

Normally, also in a monosyllable or accented syllable which contains a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the vowel is short, but the addition of silent *e* makes it long. Examples:

plan	let	rid	knot	occur
plane	complete	ride	note	cure

(*Two spelling lists: 20 words.*)

bearing, baring, barring
born, borne
breath, breathe
by, buy
capital, capitol
censor, censure
clothes, cloths, close
coarse, course
complement, compliment
conscious, conscience
corps, corpse
council, counsel, consul
dairy, diary
deprecate, depreciate
device, devise
desert, dessert
dining room, dinning
dual, duel
formally, formerly
forth, fourth, forty
hear, here
heard, herd
hoping, hopping
imitate, intimate
ingenious, ingenuous
instance, instants
irrelevant, irreverent
its, it's
later, latter
lead, led
lessen, lesson
loath, loathe
loose, lose
new, knew
nineteenth, ninety, ninth
past, passed
peace, piece
perceive, pursue
plain, plane
precede, proceed, supersede
presence, presents
principal, principle
prophecy, prophesy
quiet, quite
red, read
respectfully, respectively
right, rite, write, playwright
seize, siege
sense, since
shone, shown
sight, site, cite
speak, speech
stationary, stationery
statue, stature, statute
steal, steel
than, then
there, their, they're
to, too, two
track, tract
waist, waste
weak, week
whole, hole
who's, whose
your, you're

(*Spelling list: 160 words*)

D. MASTERING TROUBLE-SPOT WORDS

D. Be vigilant regarding the trouble spots in the spelling of individual words. In some of the following words the trouble spots are caused, at least partly, by slovenly pronunciation of unaccented syllables. In others they are caused by failure to consider etymology or cognate forms.* In still others they exist from less obvious causes.

all right
*al*most
bus*i*ness
ch*o*sen
could *have*
def*i*nite
d*e*scribed
d*i*vide
e*tc*.
excell*e*nt
incl*i*nation
maint*e*nance
opp*o*rtunity
parl*ia*ment
pleas*a*nt
prep*a*ration
prev*a*lent
priv*i*lege
rid*i*cule
r*i*diculous
sacr*i*fice
sep*a*rate
*s*ure
T*ue*sday
vill*ai*n

(*Spelling list: 25 words*)

E. SPELLING BY EYE

E. Make use of the eye in learning to spell. Teach yourself to look so carefully at written or typed words that a false spelling or misprint will stand out like a deformity. In lists you make of words you are learning to spell underscore or capitalize the troublesome letters, and thus bring to your aid the powerful reinforcement of vision.**

EXERCISE

1. Prepare for your instructor a corrected list of words which you have misspelled in your papers to the present time.

---

* Kinships often affect spelling. Thus to remember the Latin *finis* precludes the use of *a* in *definite;* to remember *prepare* keeps *e* out of the second syllable of *preparation;* to remember *busy* makes *i* before *s* in *business* impossible. But to remember cognate forms mars the spelling of such words as *pleasant*, *prevalent*, and *maintenance*.

** Never permit yourself knowingly to write an incorrect spelling of a word. Not only will the erroneous form impress the memory through the eye, but the manual act of arranging the letters falsely will do much to create a wrong habit. Right spelling may have mechanical help—proper muscular impulses—as well as the help of observation. You can teach yourself to spell, not only by ear and by eye, but by hand.

SPELLING

2. Copy the following words and underscore the letters (here indicated) which careless speakers do not sound. If you are prone to omit letters or syllables in spelling, copy also the first list in **B**.

accident*all*y
acc*u*rate
arithm*e*tic
bu*r*st
bus*i*ness
compe*ti*tive
eatin*g*
ev*e*ry
fav*o*rite
Feb*r*uary
fu*r*ther
hurr*y*ing
inter*e*sting
lib*r*ary
natur*all*y
person*all*y
phys*i*ology
preven*t*ative
re*a*lize
satisfact*o*rily
stric*t*ly
su*r*prise
temper*a*ment
us*u*ally
vari*e*ty

(*Spelling list: 25 words*)

3. Copy the following words and divide each word into syllables at the italicized point. Test the correctness of your divisions by consulting a dictionary. If you are weak in deciding whether a consonant between syllables should be doubled, copy also the fourth list in **B**.

a*dd*ress
a*d*opt
a*tt*ract
beco*m*ing
ha*b*it
be*g*in
be*gg*ing
di*s*appear
di*s*ease
dis*s*ent
dis*s*ipate
i*m*age
i*mm*ediate
mi*s*ery
mis*s*ionary
mis*s*pell
nec*e*ssary
oc*c*a*s*ion
occu*rr*ence
as*s*u*r*ance
embar*r*ass
o*p*inion
o*pp*ose
pro*ff*er
pro*f*essor

(*Spelling list: 25 words*)

4. Copy the following sentences, choosing from the parentheses the word which the meaning requires:

He has (lead, led) a busy life.
Of (coarse, course) we could scarcely (breath, breathe).
I (loath, loathe) a snake and all (its, it's) ways.
His (presence, presents) was unexpected, but our host (accepted, excepted) it pleasantly.
I am (hoping, hopping) you can tell me (who's, whose) it is.

5. Copy the following words, underscoring the trouble spot of each. Copy also from the list in **D** all the words which you are not sure you can spell correctly.

ac*a*demic
*a*lmighty
b*a*sed
Brit*ai*n
col*o*ring
criti*c*ism
de*a*lt
d*e*spair
diff*e*rent
d*i*vine
do*e*s
doct*o*r
dorm*i*tory
eig*hth*
el*e*ment
ev*i*dence
exist*e*nce
gramm*a*r
hum*o*rous
kno*w*ledge

manu*a*l
math*e*matics
m*e*ant
might *have*
opt*i*mism
pess*i*mist
pol*i*tics
pos*i*tive
sent*i*ment
superintend*e*nt
use*d* to
veng*e*ance
whether
whi*ch*
would *have*

(*Spelling list: 35 words*)

Rules for Spelling

21. Learn and be vigilant to apply the best rules for spelling.

Many words (see the preceding article) must be mastered individually, with such aid as may be obtained from their sound, appearance, origin, kinships, etc. Other words may be mastered in accordance with definite laws. These laws, it is true, are not infallible; they permit exceptions.* Sure knowledge, however, of a few select rules will teach you the spelling of whole troops of words at a time.

A. WORDS IN *EI* OR *IE*

A. Write *i* before e
When sounded as ee
Except after c.

After c	*After any other letter*
rec*ei*ve, dec*ei*tful	bel*ie*ve, *fie*ndish
*cei*ling, incon*cei*vable	*wie*ld, *thie*vish
	re*trie*ve

*Exceptions: Neither financier seized either species of weird leisure.***

(*Spelling lists: 15 words, the word "seize" being disregarded because it is listed in* **20C**.)

---

* There are almost no exceptions to Rules **21A** and **21B**.

** Of *ei* or *ie* words those in which the sound is *ee* are the ones really difficult to spell. Those in which the sound is something else (especially those in which it is *a*) usually have *e* first.

a sounds	Other non-*ee* sounds	Irregularly spelled non-*ee* sounds
n*ei*ghbor	h*ei*ght	fr*ie*nd
w*ei*gh	h*ei*r	s*ie*ve
fr*ei*ght	for*ei*gn	f*ie*ry
	(*Spelling lists: 10 words*)	tr*ie*s, etc.

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B. DOUBLING A FINAL CONSONANT

B. In adding a suffix which begins with a vowel (as -*ance*,-*ed*,-*ing*), double a final consonant (1) if the word is a monosyllable or has the accent on the last syllable, (2) if a single vowel precedes the consonant, and (3) if the consonant itself is single.

SUMMARY OF THE TEST: ACCENT, ONE, AND ONE

Monosyllables (one vowel, one consonant)	*Accented final syllables* (one vowel, one consonant)
bat-ted	begin-ning
clan-nish	control-led
get-ting	unregret-ted
chum-my	commit-tee
bag-gage	repel-lent*

(*Spelling lists: 10 words*)

---

* Words disqualified by the Accent, One, and One test do not double the consonant.

Monosyllables (other than one vowel, one consonant)	*Accented final syllables* (other than one vowel, one consonant)	*Unaccented final syllables*	*Suffix not beginning with a vowel*
hel*p*-er	perfor*m*-ance	prohibit-ed	allot-*ment*
go*a*d-ed	discl*ai*m-er	murder-ous	spot-*less*
com[*e*]-ing	refus[*e*]-al		

(*Spelling lists: 10 words*)

Two special classes of words seem at first to violate the rule regarding the doubling of a final consonant:

1. Words like *quitting*, *quittance*, *quizzes*, *squatter*, *acquitted*, *equipped*. After *q*, *u* has the force of *w*; hence a word of this class contains only one real vowel in the accented syllable.
2. Words like *conference* (from *confer*), *inference* (from *infer*), *preferable* (from *prefer*), and *referee* and *referendum* (from *refer*). These derivates shift the accent from the syllable which bears it in the source word.

C. DROPPING FINAL *E*

C. In adding a suffix which begins with a vowel, drop final e. In adding a suffix which begins with a consonant, retain final e.

Suffix beginning with a vowel

guide, guidance
please, pleasure
force, forcible
white, whitish
confuse, confusion
desire, desirous
arrive, arrival
college, collegiate
use, using
lose, losing
hide, hiding
dislike, disliking
oblige, obliging
love, lovable
mistake, unmistakably

Suffix beginning with a consonant

strange, strangeness
arrange, arrangement
entire, entirely
grace, graceless
revenge, revengeful*

(*Spelling lists: 20 words*)

---

* Both parts of the rule have many exceptions. Before a suffix beginning with a vowel, *e* is retained in

dyeing
singeing
(to prevent confusion with other words)

peaceable
changeable
noticeable
serviceable
unmanageable
outrageous
advantageous
(to keep *c* or *g* from being hard before *a* or *o*, as in *cable, gable, cold, go*)

us(e)able (as a variant spelling)
unsaleable (as a variant)
eyeing (as a variant spelling)
mileage (preferred spelling)
acreage
hoeing
shoeing
agreeing
tingeing

Before a suffix beginning with a consonant, *e* is dropped in

duly
truly
wholly
ninth
awful
argument
acknowledgment
judgment (preferred American spelling)

(*Spelling lists: 25 words, the word "ninth" being disregarded because it is listed in* **20C**.)

D. CHANGING FINAL *Y* BEFORE A SUFFIX

D. In adding a suffix which begins with any other letter than *i*, change a final *y* preceded by a consonant to *i*.

fl*y*, fl*ies*
cr*y*, cr*ied*
comed*y*, comed*ies*
earl*y*, earl*ier*
wear*y*, wear*ier*
carr*y*, carr*iage*
stud*y*, stud*ious* (but stud*y*ing)
def*y*, def*iance* (but def*y*ing)*

(*Spelling list: 10 words*)

E. PLURALS

E. In forming the plurals of nouns, conform to the practices shown in the following items.

ORDINARY NOUNS

Add *s* or *es*

officer, officers
picnic, picnics
sandwich, sandwiches
leaf, leaves
knife, knives
} *f* changes to *v* for the sake of euphony

(*Spelling list: 5 words*)

NOUNS ENDING IN *Y*

Treat like ordinary nouns unless the *y* is preceded by a consonant or by *u* as *w*; in that case change *y* to *i* and add *es*. (See **D** and its footnote.)

ess*ay*, ess*ays*
monk*ey*, monk*eys*
lad*y*, lad*ies*
all*y*, all*ies*
soliloq*uy*, soliloq*uies*

(*Spelling list: 5 words*)

---

* Do not change before a suffix a final *y* preceded by a vowel.

st*ay*, st*ays*
pr*ay*, pr*ayed*
b*oy*, b*oys*
vall*ey*, vall*eys*
destr*oy*, destr*oys*
conv*ey*, conv*eyance*
bu*oy*, bu*oyant*
enj*oy*, enj*oyment*
portr*ay*, portr*ayal*

Exceptions

p*ay*, p*aid*
l*ay*, l*aid*
s*ay*, s*aid*
sl*ay*, sl*ain*
d*ay*, d*aily*
g*ay*, g*aiety* (but g*ayety* is also used)

(*Spelling lists: 15 words*)

NOUNS ENDING IN *O*

Treat like ordinary nouns unless *o* is preceded by a vowel; in that case add *s* rather than *es*.*

Adding s		*Adding es*	*Adding either s or es*
canto	quarto	no	halo
piano	dynamo	echo	cargo
solo	Eskimo	hero	motto
silo	soprano	Negro	banjo
cameo	vowel	potato	buffalo
radio	preceding	tomato	memento
trio	final *o*	mosquito	volcano

(*Spelling lists: 25 words*)

NOUNS RETAINING OLD DECLENSIONAL PLURALS

ox, oxen
child, children
brother, brethren
mouse, mice
swine, swine
woman, women
goose, geese
foot, feet
sheep, sheep
deer, deer

(*Spelling list: 10 words*)

NOUNS RETAINING FOREIGN PLURALS

Nouns with foreign plural forms only	*Nouns with alternate plural forms*
datum, data	formula, formulas, formulae
alumnus, alumni	medium, mediums, media
crisis, crises	seraph, seraphim, seraphs
chateau, chateaux	index, indexes, indices
Mr., Messrs. (Messieurs)	criterion, criteria, criterions**

(*Spelling lists: 10 words, only the foreign plural forms being counted*)

---

* More nouns ending in *o* add *s* than *es*.

**See footnote on following page.

COMPOUNDS

Add *s* or *es* (or otherwise write the regular plural form) of the principal word. In a few instances make two members of the compound plural.

Principal word made plural

sons-in-law
passers-by
by-products
major-domos
commanders in chief

Two members of the compound made plural

women-servants
gentlemen-at-arms

Exceptions

stand-bys (verb + preposition)
handfuls } felt as
cupfuls } single words

(*Spelling lists: 10 words*)

**Additional nouns retaining foreign plurals.

Nouns with foreign plural forms only

alumna, alumnae
phenomenon, phenomena
chassis, chassis
analysis, analyses
oasis, oases
basis, bases
thesis, theses
antithesis, antitheses
hypothesis, hypotheses
parenthesis, parentheses
Mrs., Mmes. (Mesdames)

Nouns with alternate plural forms

beau, beaux, beaus
tableau, tableaux, tableaus
bureau, bureaus, bureaux
focus, foci, focuses
fungus, fungi, funguses
radius, radii, radiuses
nucleus, nucleuses, nuclei
cherub, cherubim, cherubs
appendix, appendixes, appendices
syllabus, syllabuses, syllabi
stratum, strata, stratums
memorandum, memorandums, memoranda
candelabrum, candelabra, candelabrums†
bandit, bandits, banditti

†The plural form *candelabra* is often used as a singular, for which a new plural, *candelabras*, is evolved.

(*Spelling lists: 25 words, only the foreign plural forms being counted*)

LETTERS, SIGNS, FIGURES, AND WORDS SPOKEN OF AS WORDS

Add *'s* or *s*. (Where ambiguity must be thwarted add *'s*. To figures indicating rates of interest add *s*.)

Cross your *t's* and dot your *i's* [note that *is* would be taken as a verb]. ?'s. $'s. Chesapeake and Ohio *3s*. Spell your *which's* correctly.

Exercise

1. Copy the 15 words listed in the text of **A** and the 10 listed in the footnote, underscoring *ei* or *ie*.
2. Copy the following words, inserting *ei* or *ie*:

rel......f
n......ce
unbel.....vable
undec......ve
ach.....vement
m......n
conc......ted
sh......ld
rec......pt
rel......f
repr......ve
ap......ce
shr......king
counterf......t
v......l

(*Spelling list: 15 words*)

3. In accordance with the rule **(B)** for doubling a final consonant

write the present participle (in -ing) *of these words*	*write the past tense (in* -ed) *of these words*
sin	acquit
shine	develop
pin	repeat
pine	benefit
stop	compel

write the word which belongs in the expression	*write the forms called for*
an (ill-stared, ill-starred) lover	the superlative of *brief*
priests (robed, robbed) in black	the adjective of *system*
(shaming, shamming) the devil	the noun of *fail*
hills (sloping, slopping) down	the noun of *recur*
a runner (striped, stripped) for the race	the verb of *fat*

(*Spelling lists: 20 words*)

4. In accordance with the rule **(C)** for dropping final *e* add the ending

-al to *refuse*	*-ful* to *taste*
-ity to *obscure*	*-ing* to *subdue*
-able to *recognize*	*-ary* to *imagine*
-ing to *judge*	*-ous* to *courage*
-ation to *invite*	*-ic* to *hygiene*

(*Spelling lists: 10 words*)

5. Write the plural (see rule **E**) of

church
country
debater
colloquy
religion

(*Spelling list: 5 words*)

Spelling List

22. To possess the minimum skill expected of college freshmen, **be able to spell correctly ninety per cent of the 600 words listed in Articles 20 and 21,* and of the 300 words listed in this article.** (The lists have been carefully compiled on the basis of the actual misspellings in college themes.**)

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* The distribution of spelling material is as follows:

Sections in which lists are found	*Total number of words in sectional lists*
Article 20	
b (Spelling by ear)	55
b, footnote	20
c (Words that sound alike)	160
d (Trouble-spot words)	25
Exercise 2 (Spelling by ear)	25
Exercise 3 (Spelling by ear)	25
Exercise 5 (Trouble-spot words)	35

[Footnotes continued on next page.]

22

SPELLING LIST

absence
abstinence
absurd
accompany
accustom
aching
acquaintance
actor
aeroplane
again
aggravate
already
always
amateur
among
amount
analogous
annual
anxiety
any
apology
apparatus
apparent
appearance
appreciate
appropriate
aren't
arising
around
arouse
article
ascend
attack
attacked
attendance
audience
author
awaiting
awkward

balance
barbarous
before
boundaries
break
brilliant
built
burglar
busy

calendar
can't
casualty
cemetery
certain
characteristic
chauffeur
choose
civilize
column

Article 21

a	(*ei* or *ie*)	15
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b	(Doubling a final consonant)	10
b,	footnote	10
c	(Dropping final *e*)	20
c,	footnote	25
d	(Changing final *y* before a suffix)	10
d,	footnote	15
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** For the correct form for writing additional compounds see the special word lists on pages 150-151.

comparative
concede
conferred
conqueror
continuous
coolly
copy
couldn't
courteous
courtesy
crept
cruelty

decide
decision
depth
descend
description
desperate
digging
disadvantage
disagree
discipline
disobedient
doesn't
don't
drudgery
dying

early
ecstasy
elementary
eligible
eliminate
eminent
encouraging
enemy
equipped
especially
exaggerate
exceed
exhaust
exhibiting
exhilarate.
expense
experience
explanation
extraordinary

factory
familiar
fascinate
finally
football
forfeit
frantically
fraternity
freshman (adj.)
furniture

gallant
gambling
gathered
gauge (or gage)
genealogy
goddess
governor
grandeur
guard
guess
guilty

half
harass
hasn't
haven't
having
herself
hesitancy
hoarse
huge

illegible
illiterate
immigration
imminent
impossible
incidentally
incredible
independence
infinite
influence
instead
intelligence
intentionally
interfere
irresistible
isn't
itself

license (or licence)
literal
logically
loneliness
lying

making
manufacturer
many
marriage
material
memorable
message
miniature
minutes
momentous
much
murmur
muscle
mysterious

nickel
none
nowadays

obstacle
occasionally
o'clock
offered
oneself
opened
openness
operate
oppressive
orally

organize
oriental
ourselves
overrun

parallel
paralysis
particularly
partner
pastime
peremptory
perform
perhaps
permanent
permissible
perseverance
persuade
pervade
physical
picnicking
pitiable
poem
poetry
poison
politician
possession
practically
prairie
preference
primitive
prisoner
probably
prodigy
prove
purchase
putting

quizzes

rapid
ready
really
recede
reference
regard
region
religious
repetition
replies
reservoir
restaurant
rhetorical
rhythm

safety
scenery
schedule
science
secretary
seems
sergeant
several
severely
sincerely
shan't
slept
smooth
some
specifically
special
specimen
stopped
stories
strenuous
subtle
succeeds
successful
sugar
summarize
superintendent
suppose
supposition
symmetrical

tearing
temperament
temperature
tendency
therefore
thorough
tired
together
transferred
treasurer
trouble
typical
tyranny

undoubtedly
ungrammatical
universally
university
unnamed
unsophisticated
until

vacancy
valuable
very
vigilance
village
violent

wasn't
wearing
weather
Wednesday
welfare
where
wherever
within
without
won't
wouldn't
wrote

yourselves

Compounds

23. In individual cases, follow dictionary usage in writing the members of a compound solid, separate, or with hyphens connecting them. In general, follow good sense and any need to make logical distinctions. Compounds do not always come within the scope of clear rules.

WORDS SERVING AS A SINGLE ADJECTIVE BEFORE A NOUN

Use hyphens. Examples:

well-kept lawn	twentieth-century ideas
so-called patriots	a let's-see-you-try tone of voice
normal-school teacher	a twenty-dollar-a-week clerk*

But when the words follow the noun, omit the hyphen. Examples:

The lawn is well kept.
They are patriots, or they are so called.
She is a teacher in a normal school.
Your ideas are twentieth century.
His tone was "Let's see you try."
The clerk earns twenty dollars a week.

CARDINAL NUMBERS

Use hyphens in compounds from twenty-one to ninety-nine. Omit them from larger numerical elements.

twenty-three	one hundred and one
eighty-nine	two thousand, three hundred, and seventy-two

---

* The requirement that hyphens be used does not apply within adjective compounds which are normally written solid.

Right: a nondescript cur

Nor, ordinarily, is an adverb in *-ly* joined with a hyphen to the adjective following.

Right: brilliantly executed plays.

ORDINAL NUMBERS

In ordinal numbers, place hyphens in compounds from twenty-first to ninety-ninth only.

Twenty-third Psalm	one hundred and first page
eighty-ninth paper	two thousand, three hundred, and seventy-second parcel*

---

* The following additional rules on compounds have numerous exceptions and must be applied with caution.

Fractions as Nouns

In a fraction used as a noun, do not place a hyphen between the numerator and the denominator.

Seven eighths of the applicants are rejected at once.
Today he comes into precisely one half of his inheritance.
We need just four and two thirds.
The answer is thirty-six forty-sevenths.

Compounds Ending in a Preposition or Adverb

Use hyphens unless the two meanings are thoroughly merged; in that case write the words solid. Examples:

runner-up (the two members, though closely allied, are distinct)
a letting-down of effort (we think of the action *letting* and the direction *down*)
kickoff (we do not think of *a kick* and then of the direction *off*)

The two members are seldom written separate; for often the context would cause the preposition to seem to look forward rather than backward.

Temporarily confusing: To the runner up the prize seemed magnificent. [Say *runner-up*.]

Nouns Linked as Single Terms by Prepositions

In a few common instances use hyphens. Examples:

mother-in-law
jack-o'-lantern
men-of-war

Nouns Linked without Prepositions

Use a hyphen to prevent the first noun from seeming to be complete in itself or to bear a false relation to the second. Examples:

woman-hater
Pedro was a bull-fighter.
Did you ever see a shoe-polish like this?

One of the false-seeming relations is that of modifier. Though one noun may modify another (see **13B,** Note), the result is not a true compound.

Probably such a noun group as those below does not form a compound, but exhibits a noun serving as an adjective. Even if it forms a compound, it does not need a hyphen for the sake of clearness.

the riot act
the Missouri compromise

SPECIAL WORD LISTS

Write these words solid.

almighty
almost
already
although
altogether

anybody
everybody
nobody
somebody

anyhow
somehow

anything
everything
nothing
something

anywhere
everywhere
nowhere
somewhere

wherever
whenever
whoever

whichever
whatever
whatsoever
however

myself
yourself
herself
himself
itself
ourselves

overlook
overrun
overtake
overthrow

outburst
outcome
outcry
outdoor

upon
into
within
thereupon
throughout

moreover
inasmuch
nevertheless

(a) windup
knockout
blowout
touchdown

classroom
textbook
underdog

nowadays
tomorrow

indeed
someone
airport
newsprint

selfsame

Hyphenate these words.

self-confidence
self-educated
self-made, etc.

all-American
anti-Masonic
non-Aryan
pro-British

ex-treasurer
cure-all
up-to-date

pre-eminent
anti-intellectual *
doll-like

re-cover **
re-creation
co-respondent

---

* Note that hyphens in these words aid the eye by preventing a congestion of like letters.

** Note that the same letters without a hyphen would form a different word.

Write these words separate.

all right
no one
in order to
in spite of
in fact
en route
et cetera
parcel post (or parcels post)
side line
some place
high school
post office
post card
real estate
lieutenant colonel
major general

Write these words in any way indicated (the preferred way is given first).

today, to-day
co-operate, coöperate, cooperate
co-ordinate, coördinate, coordinate
per cent, percent
basketball, basket ball
onto, on to
oneself, one's self
vice-president, vice president*

Write these words differently for difference in parts of speech or (where the part of speech is unchanged) for difference in emphasis.

awhile (adv.)
(for) a while (noun)

sometime (adv.)
(for) some time (noun)

good-humored (adj.)
good humor (noun)

everyday (adj.)
every day (noun)

everyone (pronoun)
every one (pronoun)

anyone (pronoun)
any one (pronoun)

---

* Not only may an entire compound be written in alternate forms. A given element may be combined with other elements in various and seemingly inconsistent ways. As one of the hosts of examples in the dictionary, take these three compounds of *half*:

half dollar
half-hour
halfhearted

Exercise

Copy the following expressions, inserting hyphens, leaving unchanged, or writing solid where the material requires.

a business like step
a death like stillness
my shell like ear
a high school student
a touch me not expression
two dollar gloves
faces much wrinkled
jumping off place
two headed calves
night blooming lily
a coat out at elbows
extravagantly dressed fellows
heavier than air craft
twenty five feet of one inch pipe
fortunate president elect
prospective son in law
a grand duchess and her grand daughter
a live oak and a date palm
three times seventy five dollar bills make a thousand and fifty dollars
twenty thirty thirds of the amount
the one hundred and eighty fourth item
six and seven eighths
an I'm ready let's go expression
a self confessed tax dodger
a left handed monkey wrench
one man government
a snapper up of trifles
a write up of the sub committee's report
a second rate show off
a throw back to ancestral faults
a stop over in Memphis
the official stop watch
an especially furious set to
the wished for spelling bee
a Congressman at large

Capital Letters

A. IN ORDINARY SENTENCES, IN QUOTATIONS, IN TITLES, IN PROPER NAMES

24A. Capitalize the first word of a sentence or a quoted sentence and the first word of each line of poetry.

The clerk shrugged, "But who'd want trash at any price?"

First and Important Words in Titles of Books, etc.

Capitalize the first word and all important words in the title of a book or theme (all words except prepositions, conjunctions, articles).

Travels with a Donkey [A book]

Green's *A Short History of the English People*, Chapter 5, page 12. [Capitalize *Chapter* and *Part*, but not *page*.]

BUT the *Atlantic Monthly* [A magazine. Do NOT capitalize *the* or *magazine* unless it is a part of the title.]

the New York *Times* [A newspaper. Do NOT capitalize *the*.]

Proper Names

Capitalize all proper names (individual indentifying names):

Senate, Democrat, Harold, Shorty, Spain, Catholics, Methodists, Europe, God, Christian, Christ, the Bible.

Capitalize names of

1. Definite regions: the North, the East, the Orient,

   BUT NOT points of the compass: turn west, a south wind.

2. Days, months, etc.: Tuesday, February, Christmas, Easter, Fourth of July, June tenth.

   BUT NOT names of the seasons: fall, spring, winter (unless personified—O wayward, fickle Spring!).

3. Races and languages (and adjectives derived from them): Indian, Japanese, Negro, Latin, English, French

   BUT NOT school studies (except languages): history, art.

4. Titles that precede a name: Uncle Roy, Captain Lain, Mr. Green, Dr. Carr, President Fox, the Reverend Mr. Hartwell,

   BUT NOT a title after a word like *my*: my aunt Jane, my father, a doctor, the lawyer, a college president.

Exercise

Insert a capital wherever one is necessary. Be able to give a reason for each decision. (Begin each *complete* sentence with a capital, and insert a period if one is needed. Do not begin an *incomplete* sentence with a capital.)

1. spending the winter in the south
2. in the spring our warm winds come from the southeast
3. last year we lived in the west and next summer we shall live in the east
4. the whole rooting section shouted, "run the other way! that's your own goal! stop him!"
5. the negro's fondness for music
6. these japanese students rank high in manual training and art
7. my brother and his wife live with uncle jim in saginaw
8. the doctor is talking to aunt sophie in the office
9. "why, you fibber," accused the little girl, "you know your mother told you not to touch Aunt may's pies!"
10. the poem "thanatopsis" by william cullen bryant was published in the *north american review.*

B. IN REGULARLY ADDED GENERAL NAMES

B. Capitalize general words regularly added to place names ana organizations.

Place names: Thirty-second Street, Boulder City, Kern County, Worth Lake, Merrimac River, Red Mountain, Lake Elsinore, Mt. Everest, Point Barrow.

BUT NOT a river west of town, a mountain behind the lake.

Organizations: Roosevelt School, the Baptist Church, the Santa Fe Railroad, Standard Oil Company, the University Club, William and Mary College, University of Wisconsin,

BUT NOT our high school, a church, competing oil companies, a railroad crossing, a service club, coeducational colleges.

Manufactured structures: the San Marcos Building, Moose's Store, the College Shop, Brooklyn Bridge, Apartment 3, Tudor Arms, the Cathay Theatre, Stearns Wharf.

BUT NOT a new office building, a hat shop, an apartment house, a neighborhood theatre, the fisherman's wharf.

Exercise

1. the new address of the paris hat shop is 27 west thirty-ninth street
2. crossing the bridge from pasadena avenue you enter the southwestern portion of pasadena
3. the next street is avenue forty-three
4. all students with numbers five, ten, and twenty-five report to dr. renfrew by four p.m., thursday
5. the principals of all the leading high schools in the east

Trade Names, Divided Usage

Note 1.—Capitalize only the specific part of trade names: *Ivory* soap, *Arrow* collars, *Carter's* ink, *Del Monte* pineapple, *Silvertown* tires. [There are many Silvertown *tires*, but there is only one Brooklyn *Bridge*.]

Divided Usage: Since newspapers deal mainly with trade names like *Goodyear tires, Colgate's toothpaste* they often extend their trade-name practice to place names thus: *Tenth avenue, Ozark mountains.* (They never use a small letter when the general term comes before the proper name: Lake Louise. Mt. Shasta. They seldom have courage to use a small letter for the name of a store or industry: Jordano Brothers' Grocery. Newspaper usage is permissible if one uses it consistently, but it is not always clear. For example: Does *Wisconsin river* mean *a* river in Wisconsin, or *the* Wisconsin River?)

Since book publishers deal with place names oftener than with trade names like *Manhattan shirts*, they usually print *Fifth Avenue, Rocky Mountains.* This "literary usage" is preferred usage at the present time.

I, O, and Abbreviations

Note 2.—Capitalize *I* and *O* and abbreviations of words used as part of a proper name: *Dr., Mr., Mt., St.*

Titles Used in Place of Names

Note 3.—Do not capitalize titles used in place of names except for officials of very high rank. Write *the mayor*, *the chief of police*, *the sophomore class.*

A school publication would be justified in printing *the Faculty*, *the College*, *the Dean*, *the Freshman Class* provided those terms had specific reference for local readers. A newspaper of general circulation or a letter to an outsider would not use capitals because such terms do not have a specific reference for readers in general.

Within a business organization one would be justified in writing *the Home Office*, *the Board of Directors*, *the General Manager*, *the Chief*, *the Boss* provided these terms had a specific reference for local readers.

Father and *Mother* may be written with capitals or without. Capitals are preferable when the word falls alongside proper names (Marian, Uncle Joe, and Father).

Note 4.—A few words which were once capitalized because their derivation from a proper noun was clearly remembered are now written with a small letter because their meaning has become generalized: *italic* type, *pullman* car, *pasteurized* milk.

EXERCISE

1. near the bay of naples and southeast of the city of naples are the ruins of pompeii
2. in 17 a.d. the city was destroyed by an eruption of vesuvius
3. on the north side of mt. wilson
4. the maid said, "take an order, please, for mrs. roberts, apartment 5, gordon arms apartments: one bottle of california home catsup, a dozen bars of white king laundry soap, a pound of clover butter, and a package of knox's gelatin"
5. the start of the race at point loma yacht club
6. a pullman on the baltimore and ohio railroad
7. returned to college by train on easter morning after a fortnight in the catskill mountains
8. a degree from northwestern university

9. the salesgirl in goldberg's basement chirped, "now what can I do for you, dearie?"
10. on february third eight negro students will present a program of spirituals in potter memorial hall, and all university students are urged to attend

PUNCTUATION

SUMMARY OF THE USES OF THE COMMA

One Comma to Separate	a. Main Clauses joined by *and, or, but, for*
	b. A Series
Two Commas to Enclose	c. Interrupters (appositives, etc.)
	d. Loose Modifiers (nonrestrictive)

The Comma

A. COMMAS TO SEPARATE MAIN CLAUSES WHEN A CONJUNCTION IS USED

25A. Main clauses joined by *and, or, but, for* require a comma before the conjunction. If a conjunction is lacking use a semicolon.

He gave the money to Burke, and Reynolds received nothing.

We must hang together, or we may all hang separately.

The hour arrived, but Forbes did not appear.

She was glad she had looked, for a man was approaching the house. [The comma saves the reader from combining words thus: *looked for a man.*]

Note 1.—The following modifications of the rule are possible.

Very short main clauses may omit the comma: We ate and we drank.

A semicolon may be used if one clause already has a comma near the intersection:

This car is better, no doubt; but it costs more.

A semicolon may be used to balance one main clause against two others:

Miss Carter types well, and she takes shorthand rapidly; but she spells too badly to be trusted with my letters.

Also it should be remembered that *and, or, but, for* do not always link clauses. *They may join other elements.*

And and *or* may join words or phrases.	The yellow and white cat yawns. She cooks well and sews neatly. My brother Wes or my mother will help. Bring me a cup of coffee or a pot of tea.
But and *for* can be prepositions.	We spent all but five cents. They were gone for hours and hours.

Exercise—Main Clauses

Which sentences require a comma? Which require a semicolon?

1. Louisville is my favorite city but New Orleans offers a stranger more in the way of sightseeing.
2. The librarian recommended *Giants in the Earth* she said it was a powerful story of pioneers.
3. Fools need advice most but only wise men are the better for it.
4. Joe and Jerry were cautious but Dolph bet on the black horse and lost.
5. He was tattered and muddy but he ate like a gentleman.
6. I asked for pears or cherries and the clerk gave me apricots.
7. We shall probably have a long rain for the birds are still out foraging.
8. The general manager and his engineer will talk to you soon or I have misjudged their interest in your product.
9. Fred Andre is a good mechanic and his prices are low.
10. Some birds must migrate westward for a pintail duck banded in Texas was shot down in Arizona.

B. COMMAS TO SEPARATE THE ITEMS OF A SERIES

B. Use commas between items in series*	**unless *and* or *or* is used throughout.**
a dark, mysterious forest	a dark and dismal swamp
we run, shout, and dance	run and shout and dance
John, Joe, or Jerry	John or Joe or Jerry
green, gold, black, or orange	green or gold or black or orange

Should the following be punctuated? Answer *Yes* or *No.*

Two Items (*use one comma or none*)

1. lunch baskets and gurgling canteens
2. a steady gnawing hunger
3. a thick juicy steak
4. new or repossessed radios
5. a quick powerful pick-up for driving in traffic

Three Items (*use two commas or none*)

6. from Newton Cambridge and Quincy
7. inexpensive serviceable up-to-the-minute suits
8. an efficient experienced and reliable secretary
9. we wash polish and deliver your car in one hour
10. a crisp cool challenging morning

Four Items (*use three commas or none*)

11. brass bronze copper or steel
12. silks velvets laces and jewels
13. boys and boys—little ones big ones good ones bad ones
14. dogs cats parrots children are forbidden
15. clouds and trees and rolling hills and waving grass

---

*A series is a succession of elements of the same grammatical construction—two or more words harnessed together like a team, doing the same work in a sentence. They may be linked by a connective (*and, or, but*) or not linked.

1. *Special Grouping of Adjectives*

Adjoining adjectives are separated by commas if they describe the same noun in exactly the same way.

a tall, swarthy stranger = a swarthy and tall stranger

a hot, sultry evening = a sultry and hot evening

a cold, cindery waiting room [No comma follows *cindery* because *waiting room* has almost the force of a single noun like *storeroom.*]

a whistling, carefree black man [Here we wish to show that *carefree* and *whistling* describe *black man* in exactly the same way. *Black man* is a special grouping having almost the force of a compound word like *blacksmith.* No comma is needed before *black.*]

an ingenious, swift-moving short story [No comma is required before *short,* because *short story* is a special grouping having almost the force of a compound noun like *shortstop, shortcake.*]

a quarrelsome, discontented old fellow [Here we wish to show that *discontented* and *quarrelsome* describe *old fellow* in exactly the same way. *Old fellow* is a special grouping.]

white flannel trousers [*White flannel* is a special grouping. We do not mean that *flannel* and *white* describe *trousers* in exactly the same way.]

Explain why the following are correctly punctuated.

sparkling, fun-loving eyes
noisy, smelly trucks
a smug, self-satisfied grin
fragrant, fresh-baked bread
sun-splashed, white-painted walls
hot, spicy mince pies

dark blue eyes
the old lumber wagon
a queer old fellow
wild blackberry jam
an old stone wall
crisp, brown fried chicken

2. *Special Grouping of Nouns*

Commas separate *all* the items of a series of nouns having the form *a*, *b*, and *c*.*

Confusing: For breakfast we had oatmeal, bacon and honey. [Omission of the comma after *bacon* suggests a mixture.]

Right: For breakfast we had oatmeal, bacon, and honey.

Confusing: In our state the principal railroads are the New York Central, Pennsylvania and Baltimore and Ohio. [The reader might surmise that the words *Pennsylvania and Baltimore and Ohio* represent a single line or even three different lines.]

Right: In our state the principal railroads are the New York Central, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore and Ohio.

Exercise—Separating Items of a Series

1. In a low excited voice she invited him in.
2. Laying the road was a hot tedious job.
3. Salesmen clerks stenographers and accountants keep the office in an uproar.
4. At night the air seems alive with tropical insects—luminous darting insects.
5. He takes four newspapers: the *Times* the *Sun* the *Star* and the *Oregonian.*
6. The boys have just returned from a week of swimming hiking and fishing in the Adirondacks.
7. Tom killed picked and dressed four chickens for dinner.
8. We rose before sunrise routed out our bearers and prepared our loads.
9. Rent utilities and food require about two thirds of my income;

---

* Unless the writer intends that a combination like ice cream and cake shall be taken as one item: McDuff ordered ham and eggs, bread and milk, and ice cream and cake.

At one time it was common usage to omit the comma before *and* in a series having the form *a*, *b*, and *c*. This older usage cannot be called incorrect, but it is not the preferred form.

clothes transportation entertainment and emergencies take another fourth.

10. The close-packed white stucco buildings the white wall around the city and the dazzling white sand for miles in every direction make it for me the White City.

C. COMMAS TO ENCLOSE INTERRUPTERS (PARENTHETIC ELEMENTS)

C. Use commas to set off an interrupter. An interrupter is a parenthetic element *thrown into* a sentence, usually to confirm or explain something. To *set off* means to *enclose*—to punctuate on both sides.

1. Appositives

An appositive is a noun (often with modifiers) thrown in to confirm or explain another noun.

Mr. Savage, *our manager*, has asked me to call on the superintendent, *Mr. Seymour.*

From Flint, *a manufacturing town in Michigan*, we drove to Forest Cove, *a resort on Lake Superior.*

2. Items Confirming Time or Place

In Cincinnati, *Ohio*, on March 24, *1939*, our agent renewed the Fischer contract that had expired on Sunday, *March 20.*

Madison Square, *New York*, is not very different from Pershing Square, *Los Angeles.* [Or, Madison Square *in New York* is not very different from Pershing Square *in Los Angeles.*]

3. Conversational Confirmers

DIRECT ADDRESS	Your aim, *my friends*, is wrong. *George*, come here. I will, *sir*. You see, *Ann*, how it is.

Interjections	The custom is, *oh,* very old. *Well,* how goes it? *Pshaw,* let's try. The cupboard, *alas,* was bare.
Yes, No	*Yes,* he does. *No,* it doesn't. But *no,* he's heard of us, *certainly.*

4. Directive Expressions

Formal Guide Words	My next point, *however,* may irritate you. We are not, *I suppose,* the first victims. *First,* they rented a banquet hall. *Second,* they . . . His father, *they say,* is nearly bankrupt.
Speech Tags like *he said*	"But where," *John asked,* "is my partner?" *Jean answered,* "She's the one in red." John whistled. "What a break," *he said.*

He said is set off from direct discourse (the actual words spoken) but not from indirect discourse.

Direct Discourse: "I'm hungry," *he said.*
Indirect Discourse: He said that he was hungry.

Direct discourse gives the actual words spoken. Indirect discourse gives someone's secondhand account of what was spoken.

ONE OF A PAIR WORSE THAN NO MARK AT ALL

Note 2.—Enclosing commas are used in *pairs.* To set off *one end* of a parenthetic element and leave the other end open is a stupid blunder—worse than using no comma at all.

Bad: She is, you know a beauty. [Use a comma after *know.*]
Bad: I was, madam at home yesterday. [After *madam.*]

Two commas make a bridge across a parenthetic element which interrupts for a moment the forward progress of the thought.

ONE COMMA MAY BE REPLACED BY A STRONGER MARK

When an interrupter begins or ends a sentence, a period replaces one of the commas.

I know, *sir,* what you mean. I refuse, *sir.*
I know it, *alas,* to my sorrow. *Alas,* it's true.

An interrupter is *always* set off by *two marks,* though a stronger mark—period, question mark, or semicolon—may replace one of the enclosing commas.

FUSED APPOSITIVES

Note 3.—Certain "fused" expressions are no longer thought of as appositives and are not set off:

Peter the Great	my son Paul	Mary Queen of Scots
my brother Robert	my friend Alice	the poet Gray

An appositive is sometimes sufficiently set off by italics or quotation marks:

the word *ain't*　　the expression "that's fine"

Dashes are used to set off an appositive that is already complicated by internal commas:

Her favorite colors—green, gold, and brown—make the room cheerful.

DIRECTIVE EXPRESSIONS LIKE *THAT IS*

That is (or the abbreviation *i.e.*) is regarded as a directive expression and is regularly followed by a comma. If it introduces an appositive, it is preceded by a dash:

His first argument—that is, that taxes must be increased—cannot be denied, but the remainder of his speech was pointless.

If it introduces a main clause it is preceded by a semicolon:

He is a pagan; that is, he is neither Christian, Mohammedan, nor Jew.

If it introduces a smaller element it is preceded by a comma: He is a pagan, that is, neither Christian, Mohammedan, nor Jew.

Namely (=*viz.*) or *for example* (=*e.g.*) when used as a directive expression is ordinarily followed by a comma. If it introduces an appositive it is preceded by a dash or a comma.

> Three errors were made in the last issue of this bulletin—namely, the date of the Burton-Jameson agreement, the name of the salesman in charge, and the commission paid.
>
> Also correct: If we wish to save our business we may choose one of two plans, namely a merger with the Westcott people or the expansion of our own territory.

Such as or *as* when used to introduce examples is followed by no mark. It is preceded by a comma if the examples are nonrestrictive.

> He dislikes all highly seasoned foods, such as tamales and raviolis and pungent cheeses.
>
> She likes all such fattening foods as thick gravy, fat pork, and whipped cream.

Exercise—Setting off Interrupters

Insert commas to set off each parenthetic element that interrupts the forward movement of the thought.

1. This house is I understand offered for sale.
2. The original expense as you say is small.
3. The cost of running the plant it seems to me would be great.
4. A canceled check however will serve as a receipt.
5. Appointments I find are important to keep.
6. Edgar Allan Poe the author of *The Gold Bug* was a master of the short story.
7. On February 14 1937 we left Mesa Arizona to settle in Paducah Kentucky.
8. At Youngstown a city in Ohio the first twin-six oil-electric railway car was put into service.
9. Ted has gone to Portland Oregon to learn the lumber business.
10. From Toledo Ohio we went to Lansing Michigan by plane.
11. On January 1 1940 we left Denver Colorado for the little town of Kingman in Arizona.

12. Since October 1935 there has been direct air mail service between Atlanta Georgia and Los Angeles California.
13. In the following year 1935 the firm made nearly ten thousand dollars.
14. I would have enjoyed my vacation during the summer of 1939 at Campo in San Diego County California but for one thing—the snakes.
15. This law a clumsily written piece of legislation was never enforced.
16. It is a most unusual house Burton because of the ghost.
17. Curtis you are the most stubborn boy I ever knew.
18. No Mr. Andre I don't expect my brother Fred before six o'clock.
19. It is composed of two houses the House of Representatives and the Senate.
20. "Oh I am sorry sir" she exclaimed. "I thought you said that I might go in now."
21. "Yes this is Mr. Lane's home" she answered in a frightened tone. "Will you come in Inspector?"
22. "Oh that's all right" said his friend. "Give an impromptu lecture."
23. "First we'll pick a camp site; second we'll set up camp; and third we'll gather wood" he said in the brisk tone of a commander.
24. Carlos take the guavas to Julian the Cuban merchant on Manacas Street.
25. "Give me the bucket awhile Jim if you are tired" I said.

D. COMMAS TO SET OFF LOOSE (NONRESTRICTIVE) MODIFIERS

D. Use commas to set off a clause or a phrase modifying so loosely that the sense would be complete without it. Such a modifier is *detachable,* not built in. If it is omitted the remainder of the sentence still means what the writer intended.

1. *Adjective Clauses (Relative Clauses)*

Loose Modifiers	*Built-in (restrictive)*
After a proper name or a term already identified	*After a general term which needs further identification*
Joe Powell, *who is lazy,* does not deserve to pass.	Students *who are lazy* do not deserve to pass.
The third scene, *which showed an Indian camp,* was designed by Merle Weidman.	The only scene *which was worth seeing* was a representation of an Indian camp.
Hazel's eyes, *which were brown,* snapped angrily.	Any girl *who has brown eyes* will do for this part.
I sent to Jack's house, *which is across the street.*	This is the house *that Jack built.*
They waited at the cove, *to which the strange ship cautiously drew near.*	The building *to which this sign was attached* was a slate-roofed tavern.
My neck, *which was stiff,* is all right again. [I have only one neck. The modifier is nonessential, thrown-in.]	The finger *that was hurt* is all right again. [The modifier restricts closely, pointing out *that particular finger*.]
Thomas Carlyle, *who wrote forty volumes,* was always preaching about silence. [The relative clause is loosely added. To omit it would not change the meaning intended by the writer.]	All men *who are industrious* will succeed. [The relative clause is inseparably joined to the noun it modifies. To omit it would give the sentence a meaning not intended by the writer.]

Mrs. Briggs, [*who is*] *my landlady,* was leading Tommy, [*who is*] *the neighborhood terror,* by the ear. [If the bracketed words are dropped out, the relative clauses become appositives. Such clauses are set off exactly as appositives are. Most of the nonrestrictive clauses on the preceding page can be turned into appositives. For example: Joe Powell, *a lazy fellow*, does not deserve to pass.]

2. Verbal Phrases

The rule applies to phrases as well as clauses.

Loose Modifiers (thrown-in, detachable, and therefore set off)	*Built-in, restrictive, modifying so closely as to be inseparable*
Just then Mr. Oliver, [*who was*] *peeping over the lattice fence,* caught sight of Ted.	The one [*who is*] *picking dandelions* is Mr. Oliver's child.
Our country, [*which is*] *built on democratic principles,* lacks centralized power.	A country [*which is*] *built on democratic principles* lacks centralized power.
Alarmed at the noise, the fox broke cover and ran.	A man *confronted by such odds* would play the coward too.
Emily, [*who was*] *trembling all over,* dismounted in haste.	A man [*who is*] *trembling all over* cannot shoot straight.

Trembling all over, Emily dismounted in haste. [A participial phrase at the beginning of a sentence is practically always set off.]

The plan having failed, we decided to employ a lawyer. [An absolute phrase (usually a noun plus a participle) is practically always set off. The entire phrase is independent (not modifying any one word in the sentence; hence the word "absolute," meaning independent).]

3. Adverbial Clauses

The same rule may be applied to adverbial clauses. Set off any modifier which is added loosely to a statement already complete in thought.

Our luck lasted until Sunday, *when* [=*and then*] *we set out for home.*	The score stood seven to six *when the first half ended* [=*at that particular time*].
We buy at Osborne's, *where the vegetables are fresh.*	We followed *where the pack mules led.*
The abbey stood roofless, *while the cloisters were unharmed.* [*While* = *but.*]	Make hay *while the sun shines.* [*While* here refers to *that particular time.*]
I'll take lemon pie, *if you please.* [The *if* clause is added loosely.]	I shall be angry *if you tell the story.*
The blade broke, *as you said it would.*	Janet watched eagerly *as the train drew into the station.*
Herrick signed with an indelible pencil, *since his fountain pen was dry.*	The fields have looked greener *since the rain fell.*
They reached the summit at eight o'clock, *after the sun had been up for hours.*	In his ignorance of parliamentary law Crabb tried to introduce a motion *after the meeting was adjourned.*
Paint is necessary for a building, *because unprotected wood admits moisture.* [The *because* clause is thrown in as an explanation.]	I do not paint the house *because paint will improve its looks.* [Probably paint does improve the looks, but it is not for this particular reason that I do the painting.]
The roof caved in, *so that the tunneling was interrupted.* [Clauses of result are always nonrestrictive.]	He wore colored glasses *so that the sun would not blind him.*

Though clause (always set off): The council ordered the boulevard paved, *though there were no funds in the treasury.* [*Though* and *although* always mean *but*, and a *though* clause is always set off.]

AN ADVERB CLAUSE THAT PRECEDES A MAIN CLAUSE

Note 4.—In the examples shown thus far the adverb clause follows the main clause. An adverb clause that precedes the main clause is usually punctuated according to the same rule; that is, a nonessential one is set off by commas, and a restrictive one is not.

Loose: *Though you may wash a pig,* it will always go in the mud.
Restrictive: *When the wind is in the north* the chimney smokes.

Adverb Clause that Precedes a Main Clause—Divided Usage

Some schools require a comma after *every* initial adverb clause; some after every *long* initial adverb clause.

Adverb Phrases

Adverb phrases are regularly restrictive and not set off (we live *on Randolph Street*). Even a long adverbial phrase at the beginning of a sentence is not set off. Directive expressions are set off (in the first place, on the contrary, in fact, after all) because they are not ordinary adverbial phrases doing the usual work of an adverb. They qualify the thought of the whole sentence instead of modifying the verb alone.

Exercise—Setting Off Loose (Nonrestrictive) Modifiers

Which modifiers require commas; which do not?

1. Max Weston who takes care of my car is a very competent mechanic.
2. The fellow who is laughing yonder is the ringleader of the hoax.
3. The pictures which you sent us of your mountain cabin remind me of Cambria where we spent last summer.
4. Little Clarice's hands which were covered with tar and dirt were a shock to the callers.
5. Wednesday when my brother will be away is not a good day for the party.
6. Marian Hill who is a cashier at Carlton's Restaurant has identified the thieves.
7. Any passenger who enters the engine room does so at his own risk.
8. Mr. Crenshaw who was bored with dull days in the real estate office decided to start a boom at Glen Acres which is an old swamp. swamp.

9. One morning just before dawn the trappers heard a queer noise that seemed to be just outside their tent.
10. The man who last saw the president was a salesman who wore a gray suit and a brown fedora.
11. The profit which we could expect on so cheap an article is very limited, and the risk of its not selling at all is very great.
12. Two of the many products which are derived from coal tar are phenol which is common carbolic acid and napthalene which is used for making moth balls.
13. Write to me at the Commodore Hotel where I shall be for the next two weeks.
14. His great love for nature which he acquired during his boyhood gives him relaxation from the cares of his profession.
15. Mr. Graves will be in conference until noon when he must take a train for Boston.
16. Tornadoes which are violent spiral winds are fairly common in the prairie states where there are few forests to check the force of the storms.
17. Since his graduation four years ago he has been in some mysterious business which takes him out of town frequently and of which he refuses to talk.
18. Around the core is wound the primary coil which consists of number twenty insulated copper wire.
19. Best and Coatz can fill your order if you don't care about quality or price.
20. Captain Sloan who was disconcerted by the light blinked for a moment.
21. Anyone who has lived in Coachella knows that the wind blows there almost without ceasing.
22. Around the corner is Alban's Delicatessen which specializes in fully prepared meals to take home.
23. Earthquakes frighten some people more than floods do since you can't flee from a quake and there is little warning before it is upon you.

24. The Bay Bridge which spans San Francisco Bay is over seven miles long.
25. Rattlesnakes are comparatively harmless at this time of the year because this is their molting season when they are nearly blind and sleep almost continuously.

Additional practice. Turn the even-numbered passages into more adult sentences by dropping the *who*, *which*, *what*, etc. and turning the subordinate clause into a verbal phrase or an appositive.

E. THE COMMA TO SEPARATE MISLEADING COMBINATIONS OF WORDS

E. Use a comma to separate parts of a sentence which might erroneously be read together. Better still, recast the sentence. Makeshift uses of the comma to brace weak sentences are not to be encouraged. This rule is to be applied sparingly; it is not to be used to justify an unnecessary or unintelligent sprinkling of commas.

Confusing: Below the neighbors were playing both a radio and a saxophone. [Insert a comma after *Below*].

Clear: The neighbors were playing a radio and a saxophone in the apartment below.

Confusion caused by an adverbial clause which "grabs": While she was drinking water bugs slithered past her nose. [Insert a comma after *drinking*].

Clear: Water bugs slithered past her nose while she was drinking.

Confusing: For twenty cents you can buy two pieces of pie or cake and ice cream. [Insert a comma after *pie*].

Clear: For twenty cents you can buy two pieces of pie. For the same amount you can buy ice cream and cake.

Confusing: We fished and rode in the tractor. [*In the tractor* is intended to modify only one of the two verbs.]

Punctuated: We fished, and rode in the tractor.
Recast: We fished in the canal and rode in the tractor.

Very confusing even if commas are inserted: The hooked rugs are made by the patients of old clothes or discarded blankets costing from two to ten dollars each.

Recast: These hooked rugs, costing from two to ten dollars each, are made by the patients from old clothes and discarded blankets.

In any important piece of writing try to make your sentences so clear that they could not be misunderstood even if the punctuation were removed.

Exercise—The Comma to Separate Misleading Combinations of Words

Insert a comma where one is required for clearness.

1. After all our exercises and explanations were a waste of time.
2. He jumped and stepped quickly ashore.
3. At the circus we saw several elephants and girls standing on the backs of galloping horses.
4. Whenever she moved the house seemed to shake.
5. The boy can play when he tries several difficult pieces.

Exercise

All Uses of the Comma

A

1. Immediately the mechanics warmed up the motors and the pilots ran for the hangars.
2. The house is old-fashioned and every room needs remodeling.
3. I begged her to stay for lunch but the lure of bargain day was too strong.
4. I could satisfy myself with dreams and imaginary delights but she must have realities.
5. Our plans are drawn and the blueprints are in the hands of the engineers.

B

6. It was a rainy foggy morning.
7. She was a poor lonely defenseless old woman.
8. Trout bass and pickerel are often caught there.
9. Phlox mignonette sweet peas cannas—all these yield flowers until late in the fall.
10. I miss the clean glistening snowbanks and the sparkling trees of the north country.

C

11. His parents my dear eat from red tablecloths.
12. I smell something burning Etta.
13. Well are you ready for a tramp Harry?
14. Yes Mrs. Conway we'll be there at ten o'clock.
15. In December of last year the contract he says was outlawed.
16. At Gettysburg Pennsylvania on July 3 1863 Lee's army was defeated and thrown back into Virginia.
17. Joan and Fred true modern children are playing gangster in the alley.
18. *The Rosary* and *Serenade* her first two songs are my favorites.
19. "I wonder" she mused "why hotel chefs are always men."
20. "This treaty between the two nations" he argued "is merely the attempt of each to deceive the other."

D

21. She spoke to her father who sat on the veranda.
22. Clem Rogers who is poor as Job's turkey must have a radio and a car.
23. Students who are poor appreciate the value of an education.
24. The rifle which he chose for the trip was a Savage .38.
25. The Little Town Club which was once popular is going bankrupt.
26. The Oxnard Sugar Factory [which is] running night and day is turning out a capacity load. Any man living near can find work.
27. He had no resentment against the men who had injured him.

28. We talked with the ship until ten o'clock when her wireless must have stopped. [In this sentence *when*=*and then*.]
29. On Friday we drove thirty miles to Camp Baldy where we spent the week end. [In this sentence *where* = *and there*.]
30. Franco-German animosity [which was] based on generations of rivalry could not be settled easily.

E

31. Why he was calling the bellboys who were on duty at the time could not understand.
32. Opposite the fishermen were spreading out their reeking nets.
33. In that country five dollars will buy you a policeman or two soldiers and a band.
34. Beneath the high collar climbed toward his ears.
35. The ship was sighted by the lookout the next morning rolling almost bottom up beyond the lightship.
36. As I entered a tall solemn antique clock caught my eye.
37. Behind the Alps lay; before Italy beckoned.
38. A copper teakettle sang and sent out a jaunty plume of steam toward the sleeping cat.
39. Hurt the cat turned up its nose and tail and left.
40. While we were moving up the river seemed to be rushing faster

F

41. The grain is run into a bin called the weighing bin and from this it is let down into the scales.
42. He looks sharply for little points passed over by the average person are important to him.
43. In grocers' parlance "fancy California asparagus" the name for the top grade in government ranking means the poorest quality with "extra fancy" "select" "extra select" "jumbo" and "colossal" going up the scale.
44. He ran down the hill jumped the creek and disappeared in the willows.
45. Bring me a chocolate sundae please.

46. All right carry your own baggage you chiseler.

47. Hannah wrung out a shirt angrily and went on her hands dripping suds "I'm not going to wash another rag for you Mark Taylor after today."

48. I stood my ground for I was not afraid—much.

49. Well well I haven't seen you for years but you're still the same stub-nosed freckle-faced good-natured Tom.

50. From Charleston South Carolina we drove to Harrisburg the capital of Pennsylvania.

Superfluous Commas

26. No single comma ever separates a close grammatical sequence like subject-verb-object. *Two* commas may, of course, interrupt to set off a parenthetic element, but *never one separative comma.*

1. SUBJECT-VERB

What he says ⌒ is of no importance to me.

What is quickly learnt ⌒ is soon forgotten.

2. VERB-OBJECT (OR COMPLEMENT)

No young man believes ⌒ that he will ever die.

The prince replied ⌒ that the owner of the glass slipper must be found. [Indirect discourse.]

The truth is ⌒ you do not want to be understood.

3. BEFORE A SERIES

The ship will remain several days in ⌒ New Orleans, Vera Cruz, and Panama. [A comma before the first item of a series is unnecessary unless it would be used if the item stood alone.]

The boy has a knowledge of ⌒ chemistry, geology, and biology. [Do not separate a preposition from its object.]

4. AFTER A SERIES	His knowledge of chemistry, geology, and biology ⌒ was very useful in the jungle. [The rule for punctuating a series calls for a separation of the items *from each other*. No comma is required *after* the series unless one is called for by some other rule.]
5. AFTER A CONJUNCTION	It was not gold but ⌒ sand. [No comma after *but*.] You may pay at the end of the month, or ⌒ you may pay cash and deduct five per cent.
6. BETWEEN CORRELATIVES	Conjunctions in pairs (both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also) are regularly not separated: neither friends ⌒ nor foes either fight ⌒ or give up the gun not only wastes time ⌒ but also exhausts our patience

EXERCISE

No comma is needed at the points marked ⌒ because there is a close grammatical connection between the words. Write a figure (1, 2, 3, etc.) to classify each marked spot according to the examples shown above. Be able to explain all the commas that are inserted.

1. Whoever makes decisions ⌒ is responsible, my friends, for results.
2. Any member of our club, I assure you, knows ⌒ what a kilowatt is.
3. Stews of ⌒ oogrook, walrus, and polar bear ⌒ quickly disappeared.
4. Each was grabbing ⌒ what he could for himself.
5. What you are ⌒ speaks so loudly that ⌒ I cannot hear ⌒ what you say.

6. The question is ⌒ whether personal freedom ⌒ justifies ⌒ the terrible effort, the never-lifted burden, and the risks ⌒ of self-reliance.
7. He told me ⌒ that you could either ⌒ starve to death ⌒ or admit ⌒ that you were wrong.
8. It is silly of her to say ⌒ she will never go again.
9. The wise man admits ⌒ that he never says ⌒ *never*.
10. Besides peace you have left behind you ⌒ a fountain pen, a toothbrush, and a bottle of eye lotion.

The Apostrophe

A. CONTRACTIONS

27A. Use an apostrophe in a contraction where a letter is omitted.

doesn't, he'll, we're, I'd, let's, it's [= it is]

When to Use Contractions

In friendly letters and other familiar writing use contractions when a colloquial tone is appropriate. Make your use of contractions consistent.

Exercise

1. Well have dinner if he hasnt come by seven o'clock [o'clock = of the clock].
2. Youd go if the Browns brought their car, wouldnt you?
3. Whos likely to know hes come back?
4. Lets face the fact that were trapped here for the night.
5. He doesnt know what a suit would cost but hell ask.

B. POSSESSIVES

B. Personal pronouns form the possessive without an apostrophe.

ours, yours, theirs, whose, his, hers, its

The cat washes its face. Whose is it? Yours? Theirs?

[*It's* is used only for the contraction meaning *it is:* It's an Angora cat.]

Nouns not ending in *s* add 's (men + '*s* = men's suits)
Nouns ending in *s* add ' (boys + ' = boys' suits)

How to Apply the Rule for Nouns

1. Find the base word = whatever does the possessing. To find the base, turn the possessive into an *of* phrase: *boys'* hats = hats *of boys*. *Boys* is the base word.
2. Add an apostrophe: boys' ladies'
3. If the base ends in *s* add nothing more; if not, add *s:*
   ladies' hats
   two boys' suits
   men's or children's

NOUNS NAMING INANIMATE OBJECTS

Nouns naming inanimate objects show possession by *of*

the management of the farm [not the farm's management]
the lining of the stomach [not the stomach's lining]

except in idioms expressing time, measure, or personification.

Time	*Measure*	*Personification*
the day's work	a dollar's worth	for mercy's sake
two years' wages	two dollars' worth	the heart's desire
a month's notice	a cable's length	the world's progress

PROPER NAMES ENDING IN *S*

Note 1.—The rule gives us *Keats'* poems, *Dickens'* novels. These forms are correct. But many persons prefer to add an extra *s* to names of one syllable, and to all other names whenever an extra sound is used in pronouncing the word (Keats's, Dickens's, Jones's, Thomas's). Never split a name with an apostrophe.

Very bad: Dicken's novels, Jone's store [There is probably no such person as *Dicken* or *Jone*], ladie's hats.

Right: Dickens' [or Dickens's] novels, Jones' [or Jones's] store, ladies' hats, the Joneses' house, the Harrises' car.

If you have a possessive plural to write, follow the rule. Find the base word that would be used after *of:* the house of the *Joneses*, the car of the *Harrises*. Add an apostrophe: We rode in the Harrises' car to the Joneses' house.

JOINT POSSESSION

Note 2.—To show joint possession, use the apostrophe with only the last name in the series; to show separate possession, with each name in the series.

Joint possession: Dilke and Macready's store is at the corner.

Separate possession: We shall invite John's, Gilbert's, and Henrietta's playmates.

A POSSESSIVE WITH A GERUND

Note 3.—A noun or pronoun introducing a gerund should regularly be in the possessive case (see **10D**).

Is there any criticism of *Arthur's* going? [Not *Arthur*.] We regret your being sick. [Not *you* being sick.]

PLURALS OF LETTERS OR FIGURES

Note 4.—Add *'s* to form the plural of letters of the alphabet, and usually of numbers and of words spoken of as words. But do not form the regular plural of a word by adding *'s*.

Right: His *B's* and *8's* (or *8s*) look much alike.

Right: You have too many *and's* (or *ands*) in your theme.

Exercise

Turn the italicized phrases into possessives.

1. wishes *of the voters*
2. the manner *of a lady*
3. coats *for ladies*
4. work *of two boys*
5. voices *of children*
6. yowling *of cats*
7. tales *of old wives*
8. pensions *for teachers*
9. clothes *for women*
10. dog *of a boy*
11. newspaper *of yesterday*
12. expenses *of last week*
13. work *of two years*
14. wages *for six months*
15. candy *worth ten cents*
16. the home *of the Curtises*
17. store *of Allen and Wayne* (one firm)
18. propaganda *by politicians*
19. a sale of the fur coats *of ladies*
20. loves to mind the business *of other people*

Exercise

Insert apostrophes where they are needed.

1. Lets take my car; hers isnt running well.
2. Theirs is the only plan well be able to follow.
3. Doesnt this cloth lose its luster when its washed?
4. Im not sure well go now; its too late to hear their duet.
5. Give him a teaspoonful at ten o'clock unless his temperature is down and hes feeling better.
6. Whod believe that youd lose yours and find hers?
7. He doesnt care whose soup it is so long as its hot.
8. Whats a months work to a son of the Hodges?
9. Theyll be hurt at Bills asking them to go.
10. Wont your children and my children stop teasing ours?

Quotation Marks

A. ORDINARY DIRECT DISCOURSE

28A. Each separate speech of a dialogue is enclosed in quotation marks. Every change of speaker is indicated by a new paragraph. Quotation marks enclose direct quotations (the exact words): He said, *"I'm thirsty."* [Not indirect quotations: He said *that he was thirsty.*]

(1) "Sam, you're all worked up. Whatever you say now you'll regret," Helen said quietly.

"I won't either," retorted Sam. "I won't regret anything I say to that fourflusher! He told me that he'd keep his promise."

(2) Helen caught his arm. "Don't, please!" Unheeding, he turned in the phone book to *hotels*. "Sam, please wait until morning," she begged.

"Humbolt 79738," dialing with vicious jerks.

"Can't you see how it'll look?" desperately. "He'll think it's so childish to quarrel over nothing!"

(3) "Eh? What's that?" The dialing finger paused. "Did you say 'quarrel over nothing'?"

Note these points:

1. An unbroken speech of several sentences should have only *one* set of quotation marks.
2. Outside comment may be included in a paragraph with dialogue, but it is not included within the quotation marks.
3. A quotation within a quotation is enclosed by single marks. When a speech tag like *he said* or other outside comment interrupts a quotation extra quotation marks are used to exclude the interruptive words from the

quotation. The speech tag is normally set off by two commas.

"I rise," *said he,* "to second the motion."
"You'll learn," *he narrowed his eyes,* "to do as I say."

A stronger mark (? ! ;) may replace one of the commas if the stronger mark would be called for were the speech tag omitted.

"Have you gas?" *asked Carol.* "Did you fill the tank?"
"Don't shoot!" *he exclaimed.* "It isn't a deer!"
"I like fudge." *He licked his lips.* "May I have a piece?"
"I admit it," *he said;* "it is true." [The semicolon follows *he said.*]

COMBINATION WITH OTHER MARKS

Note 1.—Commas and periods stand inside a closing quotation mark.*

"The overdrive," declared the automobile salesman, "has several advantages."

Other marks stand inside if they apply to the quotation alone; otherwise outside.

He shouted but one command, "Give them the bayonet!" [The exclamation point applies to the quotation only.]
We'll show that hulking brute that we're "weaklings"! [The exclamation point applies to the main sentence.]
Did Savonarola say, "I recant"? [The question mark applies to the main sentence. To place it inside the quotation mark would indicate that Savonarola made an inquiry rather than a statement.]

Exercise

Insert all necessary punctuation.

1. A young man in a Ford rolled into a gasoline station and said, One gallon, please.

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* The Oxford University Press has only one rule for all marks. Any mark is placed inside if it belongs to the quotation; otherwise outside. This rule is suitable in scholarly works where utmost accuracy is required in making quotations. For ordinary writing American usage suffices.

2. The attendant sneered scornfully, What are you trying to do, wean it
3. The doctor continued pensively, Nobody's family can hang out a sign Nothing is the matter here
4. Mary stopped washing dishes. It isn't a funny matter she said angrily, and we can't settle it with a joke, Dave.
5. If that's true—and I'll jolly well find out—spluttered the sergeant you'll get thirty pounds of stone in your knapsack, Smith

B. OTHER USES OF QUOTATION MARKS

B. Quotation marks are used to set off borrowed material, words used in a special sense, and occasionally material ordinarily italicized.

Borrowed material from printed sources (the exact words):

> On page 248 of Eugene Scott's *New Republic* we found the statement, "Government, like a business, should be conducted by a board of directors."* [Always name the source of borrowings, so that you may be free from all suspicion of dishonesty.]

Words used in a special sense (technical terms, slang, nick names) which might otherwise not be understood.

Permissible: The rhyme is called a "feminine rhyme."
The weavers call this tool a "mule."
She's a "panhandler" in beauty shop parlance.
Their name for my friend was "Sissy."

Italics are preferable to quotation marks to set off the titles of books or periodicals, names of ships, and foreign words.

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*An omission from a quotation is indicated by dots. Words inserted by the person quoting are included within brackets.

Amos E. Neyhart says, "Sixty-five per cent of automobile fatalities . . . are caused by drivers' mistakes: driving too fast [for weather and road conditions], delayed braking, cutting in, failure to signal, . . ."

When books or periodicals are shown in italics, quotation marks are sometimes useful to set off articles, chapters, or other incomplete parts of whole works. (See **54l.**) In handwritten or typewritten manuscript quotation marks are often substituted for italics.

Needless Use of Quotation Marks

Caution.—Unnecessary use of quotation marks is annoying. Do not use them as a label for humor if your reader is capable of detecting the humor for himself. Do not use them to enclose slogans, proverbs, technical terms, slang, or nicknames if these are such as will be readily recognized by your reader.

Exercise

Insert all necessary punctuation.

1. The phrase according to Hoyle has been heard for nearly two hundred years.
2. A sponge is a woman who buys all the creams, lotions, and treatments offered her.
3. The chapter What I Heard in the Apple Barrel pleased me, for some reason, more than any other in *Treasure Island.*
4. The transformers are used for the purpose of stepping down the current.
5. An article in the *Saturday Evening Post* says Somewhere those millions who have not been helped, have never appeared on relief rolls, are still fighting through on their own.

EXERCISE

1. The duchess bellowed Off with her head!
2. I represent the National Aluminum Company, Mrs. O'Mallin. Mrs. Neiderkorn next door has just spent a very pleasant quarter hour looking at my Everlasting kitchen utensils. Grasping the doorknob the agent continued May I step in to show you the outfit which pleased Mrs. Neiderkorn so much

3. No, you needn't bother, replied Mrs. O'Mallin, I can't afford to buy aluminum today. She waved her hand toward a gleaming refrigerator. I've just started paying for that.
4. The use of the X-ray to discover flaws in machinery, he continued, is rapidly being adopted by large manufacturing companies.
5. The Latin words *in rerum natura* should be translated in the nature of things.
6. Succeeding in life depends to a surprising extent on the ability to take it.
7. The girls Harvey explained screamed Mice and climbed chairs.
8. A good fellow is a costly name.
9. I told him to let my dog alone explained the battered warrior, tenderly laying a wet towel on the largest lump, and he just said Nuts so I let him have it. The unclosed eye glared righteously. He looks worse than I do.
10. Such unavoidable disasters are called acts of God.

Other Marks

A. END MARKS

29A. End questions with question marks, and other sentences with periods (unless emphasis requires an exclamation point instead).

You saw him? Where? What next? What does it matter? He asked whether I belonged to the club. [An indirect question—not the exact words spoken—does not require a question mark.]

Did she inquire whether I belonged to the club? [Though it ends in an indirect question, the sentence as a whole is interrogative.]

Hark! I hear horses. Turn out the guard, ho!

But oh, how I hate it!

Where are the stocks? the bonds? the evidences of prosperity? [Do not place commas or semicolons after the first two question marks.]

"Hit this one!" yelled the pitcher. [Do not place a comma or a period after the exclamation point.]

Note 1.—Excessive use of the exclamation point is undesirable. Unless the emotion to be conveyed is strong and genuine, use a comma within the sentence, a period at the end.

The use of a question mark or exclamation point as a label for humor is childish.

Exercise—Period, Question Mark, Exclamation Point

Correct the following sentences by supplying periods, question marks, and exclamation points where they are needed.

1. Does Thanksgiving come on the twenty-seventh this year
2. The mate bawled, "Wear ship Aloft with you"
3. What a becoming suit she is wearing
4. "What are you doing, runt" he scowled
5. Why isn't he here That is the question

B. THE SEMICOLON

B. Regularly use a semicolon between main clauses *not* joined by *and, or, but, for.*

The jaws of the scoop swung open; out tumbled the dirt and debris. [Or] The jaws of the scoop swung open. Out tumbled the dirt and debris. [To use a comma, instead of the semicolon or the period, would show lack of sentence sense.]

My courses require very hard study. Do yours? [Or] My courses require very hard study; do yours?

Very often the writer may choose freely between the semicolon and the period; in such instances the use of the semicolon implies greater logical unity between the clauses than the use of the period would show. Unless this logical unity is distinct the period is to be preferred.

Note 2.—The regular mark between main clauses joined by *and*, *or*, *but*, *for* is the comma; but a semicolon may replace a comma when a sentence is complicated by other punctuation.

> He arrived, as luck would have it, after nightfall; and immediately going to a hotel, he called for a room. [Since there are other commas near the intersection of clauses, a semicolon is desirable to show where the separation is greatest.]
>
> The night dragged on, and the time seemed endless; but at last the bright red rim of the sun showed above the crest of the hill. [One main clause is balanced against two others.]
>
> From all parts of the country—from Bangor, Maine; from Tallahassee, Florida; and from Tacoma, Washington—came letters of inquiry. [The semicolon is used in a complicated series.]

Exercise—Semicolon

Insert commas and semicolons where they are needed. Give a reason for each choice.

1. In the beginning of man's development there were only families then came clans, tribes, towns, and states.
2. In 1860 cottonseed was garbage in 1870 it was fertilizer in 1880 it was cattle fodder in 1890 it was food for men.
3. Three men and a boy sailed away four men returned.
4. The camp was deserted and the well was dry nevertheless we were glad of a roof over our heads.
5. The house was quiet and the lights were out yet I could feel eyes peering out at me from behind every window shade.

C. THE COLON

C. Use a colon to introduce a *long* or *formal* direct quotation.

> The speaker began as follows: "Mr. Chairman, I move that . . ."

Use a colon before an appositive series (one which confirms a broad summarizing noun) or before a formal explanation.

The process consists of three steps: molding, painting, and polishing.

The process consists of molding, painting, and polishing. [These are not appositives. Do not use a colon.]

My favorite novels are the following: *Ivanhoe*, *War and Peace*, and *Les Miserables*.

Next year I shall do three things: study hard, take care of my health, and enter into student activities.

Next year I shall study hard, take care of my health, and enter into student activities.

Note 3.—A dash may be used for a colon when informality is desired. The manager named three of us—Blewett, Upshaw, and me. What it comes to is this—will you endorse Cheney's note? Only one man stood between Burr and the presidency—Jefferson.

Exercise—The Colon

Which of the following sentences require colons? Which do not? Why?

1. Every good news lead covers the following items who, what, where, when.
2. Begin your paragraph by telling who, what, where, when.
3. When in science we meet a new phenomenon we immediately ask two questions What is it? Why is it?
4. She made sure she had the necessary ingredients sugar, cream, butter, salt, chocolate, and nuts.
5. Two rules to bear in mind when you dent someone's fender or he dents yours are these Be courteous and Let the other fellow do the talking.

D. THE DASH

Make the dash twice as long as the hyphen—

D. A dash denotes an emphatic pause or a breaking off.

Of course if you mean that—

The next morning—let's see, what happened the next morning?

The trip was the third—wait a minute, the fourth—or maybe the fifth. [Hesitation.]

Barnes played a trick one day—in fact, Barnes was always into mischief. [Afterthought.]

A thick slab of bread above, a thick slab of bread below, and an imaginary slice of ham between them—that's a sandwich. [Summary.]

Use dashes to set off interrupters which are emphatic or split by commas.

She fell asleep—would you believe it?—in the middle of the lecture.

These collections—stamps, coins, and old campaign buttons—belong to school children. [If commas were used instead of dashes the first four nouns would appear to be a series.]

A few items—for example, the cost of drilling—they had underestimated.

Tony Romero—leader of our gang, you remember, when we played under the viaduct—is going on a polar expedition. [If commas were used instead of dashes the reader might at first be uncertain where the parenthetic element ends].

Caution.—Excessive use of the dash is a tiresome mannerism.

Combination with Other Marks

Note 4.—A dash is not used after a comma, colon, or semicolon. A parenthetic element between dashes does not begin with a capital nor close with a period, but may be followed by an exclamation point or question mark.

Exercise—The Dash

Insert dashes where they are required.

1. Those overworked theatrical types the self-made hero, the unscrupulous villain, and the persecuted heroine should be laid on the shelf.
2. The cost of supplies for example, copper wire, glass wool for insulation, and asbestos sheeting is very great.
3. If I could get my hands on him I'd oh, I don't know what I'd do.
4. Although New Mexico ranks fourth of our states in area three fifths the size of France, with single counties as big as Wales or Scotland it has a population smaller than that of many an American city.
5. I don't believe no, I'm sure it isn't true, but if it were I wouldn't repeat it.

E. PARENTHESES AND BRACKETS

E. Use parentheses for asides, for business confirmations, and for slipping in useful information in the least conspicuous way. Dashes tend to emphasize the element between them, but parentheses submerge it. In general, dashes are more literary and parentheses are more scientific and businesslike.

> His testimony is conclusive (unless, to be sure, we find that he has perjured himself). [The parentheses enclose a confidential aside. To substitute a dash before *unless* would emphasize the aside and suggest more strongly that the man *had* perjured himself.]
>
> We pay three (3) dollars a day. They earn three dollars ($3) a day.

Combination with Other Marks

The main part of a sentence which contains a parenthesis is punctuated exactly as it would be if the parenthetic matter were struck out.

> The most elementary change of negative electricity is called the electron (see page 97); the opposite positive charge is called the proton.
>
> Last year's deficit was thirty dollars and ten cents ($30.10).
>
> In New York these are the most popular operas: (1) *Aida,* (2) *La Bohème,* (3) *Pagliacci,* (4) *Madam Butterfly.*
>
> The farmers were eating fruits canned in factories (think of it!), while we city dwellers had fruits fresh from the markets. [An interruptive statement may end with a question mark or an exclamation point; capital letter and period are regularly omitted.]

Brackets are used to insert explanations, corrections, or omitted matter in the body of a quotation (they separate the words of the quoter from the words of the person quoted). Explanatory matter inserted by the original writer is enclosed within parentheses.

> "Bunyan's masterpiece (*Pilgrim's Progress*)," the writer declares, "is [out] of harmony with the spirit of the age that produced it [the age of the Restoration]. Its publication in the reign of James II [Charles II] is incredible." [The parentheses indicate matter which was in the original statement. The brackets indicate matter—an inadvertent omission, an explanation, and a correction—which was not in the original statement.]

Exercise—Parentheses

Insert parentheses where they are required.

1. The year of Scott's death 1832 was one of notable events.

2. Some sinister act an attempt to tamper with the jury? is hinted in the letter.
3. This topic see Appendix D is very complicated.
4. The gearshift Fig. 2, f regulates the speed and the power.
5. We agree to pay six per cent 6% interest on the loan.

Exercise

1. I came I saw she conquered
2. Do you know what it is It's a salmon a beauty
3. Everybody as Mark Twain is said to have remarked talks about the weather but nobody does anything about it
4. The bacteria marked b in the attached sketch reproduce by fission
5. He searched feverishly and I trembled but he did not find my hiding-place
6. A hyperbola is a well it's a well I can't explain it Professor but I know what it is
7. There are several kinds of lies pure unadulterated lies uttered with malicious intent ornate imaginative lies designed to entertain and cheerful and polite lies whose purpose is not so much to deceive anyone as to fend off petty vexations
8. Can't you picture him Jiggs sneaking out of the house his own looking fearfully over his shoulder
9. From literature we learn of human nature the nature of the writer of the characters portrayed in the book a most revealing study and of the people around us in everyday life
10. One may divide newswriting into three general classes news editorials and features

PART TWO

THE LARGER ELEMENTS OF COMPOSITION

THE WHOLE COMPOSITION: ANALYSIS

Good writing is usually *planned* or *thought through* in advance, the steps being something like this:

1. Getting a Main Idea (wrestling with it, analyzing it) and Main Points (the definite facts or examples to develop it). First ask yourself, "What is my Main Idea? What is my one main purpose with my reader?"
   (See Article **30**.)
2. Organizing Your Material. Ask yourself, "What does my reader need first? second? last?
   (See **31** and **32**.)
3. Writing. If you have determined your Main Points and the Order in advance, your work can "have structure," can march in a clear, straightforward way to its goal.
   (See **33** and **34**.)

Analyzing Your Material and Shaping It for a Definite Purpose

30. Take a subject rich in interest (one on which you are well informed or one on which you *want* to be well informed). **Analyze your material. Limit your subject to some one phase which you can develop with reasonable thoroughness. Determine your Main Idea and Main Points.**

LIMITING THE SUBJECT

A broad subject tempts you to make general or abstract statements that are of little value. A small subject enables you to keep your feet on the ground and to wrestle with definite, concrete things.

Subject hopelessly broad: "Natural History" or "Evolution"
Subject still too broad, even for a book: "Animals"

Subjects suitable for a long exposition:
- Methods of Determining the Value of Farm Animals (or, How to Judge a Good Draft Horse)
- Is the Airedale a Better Companion than the Collie?
- The Comparative Intelligence of the Dog and the Horse (or, The Intelligence of a Horse, or, How to Teach a Dog to Guard a House)
- What Does *Survival of the Fittest* Mean?
- The Biological Meaning of "Mob Psychology"

Subjects suitable for a short composition:
- Watching an Insect at Work
- The Muskrat as a Builder
- The Difference in the Way a Cat and a Dog Lie Down
- One Interesting Fact about Frogs
- A Curious Disease of Sheep

The Day's Work of a Robin
How to Poison Coyotes
When the Pelt of an Animal Is in Best Condition
Do Squirrels Hibernate?
How a Hen Educates Her Chickens
If I Were a Naturalist

DETERMINING YOUR PURPOSE WITH THE READER

Ask yourself, What do I want to do with my reader? Entertain him? If so, you will perhaps need narrative incidents, dialogue, even humor, and lively descriptive details. Urge him to take action? If so, you may need a closely reasoned argument. Explain something? If so, you may need a serious approach, based on definite facts, with explanation of terms that are not clear.

This last type of writing—explanation or *exposition* as it is more often called—includes editorials, criticisms, essays, directions, explanations of how to do or make something, and dozens of other useful and practical ways of telling how or why. Nearly all writing is either narration (story-telling) or exposition (explaining). You should know at the outset which type best fills the need. Sometimes you may mingle the two forms, yet you must always know whether your purpose and method are *mainly narrative* or *mainly expository.*

DETERMINING YOUR MAIN IDEA AND MAIN POINTS

Determine your central purpose, and express it in a single sentence to guide your thinking. Add your main points below this sentence if you wish. Examples:

The Process of Making Apple Cider

There are four steps in the process of making high grade apple cider for commercial use:

gathering the apples
preparing the apples
grinding and pressing the apples
bottling the cider

Why the Balcolm Bowl Bond Issue Should Be Passed

In the coming bond election the people of Balcolm should pass the $150,000 bond issue for Balcolm Bowl.

need for bowl
attendant increase in trade
attendant increase in property value
economy of building now

GETTING MATERIAL TO DEVELOP THE POINTS

Get things to say before you begin to write. Get definite facts, concrete illustrations or examples, incidents, bits of dialogue, evidence—all the stuff or substance you may need to round out your main idea fully.

Get material from your own thought and experience—those details or incidents that appear to be significant in your own observation or reflection.

Get material from others—from conversation or from books. Interview well-informed persons. Ransack libraries. Get information and make it your own (see **50**).

GIVING CREDIT FOR BORROWINGS

Note.—Whenever you borrow important ideas or facts, give credit by using quotation marks or footnotes or both (see **54J**). You need not bother to give credit for dates and statistical matter which is more or less common property. Yet even here the safe and shrewd course is to name your source. If it turns out that your facts are in error, the blame lies in part on your authority. The act of taking ideas from others without acknowledging the debt is called plagiarism, or literary stealing. To escape even the appearance of dishonesty, acknowledge every important borrowing.

Exercise

Which of the following subjects are too broad to be developed adequately in a few pages? Limit three of the broad subjects to good "one phase" titles for short themes. Write a summarizing sentence or key sentence that gives the thesis or governing idea for one of them.

Propaganda
The Orient
Advertising
On Trimming Kodak Prints
Mexico
Why Is the Sky Blue?
South America
Interior Decoration
Most Fun for a Nickel?
Clothing
Where My Lunch Came From
Progress in Science
A New Use for Electricity
Making Automobiles
Going on Track Five
Traffic in a City
How to Judge a Picture
Indian and Mayan Culture
My Grandfather

Radio Programs
Comic Strips
New Use for an Old Joke
Chain Stores
Newspapers
An Hour behind the Counter
Housing in Cities
Food
A Historic Tree of This Region
Manners
Color in the Home
Electricity
How a Book Is Put Together
Maps
Half-Burned Gasoline
Prize Fighting
Do Animals Think?
A Feature of Japanese Life That We Might Well Imitate

Organizing Material before Writing

31. Get an exact title and a controlling idea. Ask *What does my reader need first? second? last?* and by that test arrange your main points in some natural or logical order.

AN EXACT AND EFFECTIVE TITLE

Select a title which indicates accurately the nature (and if possible the limits) of the composition.

Title broad or vague: Do not write *Crossing Oceans* if your material covers merely *The First Air Mail Service across the Atlantic.*

Title deceptive: Do not write *How Sales May Be Increased* if your composition discusses rather *The Qualities of a Good Salesman.*

Title to be qualified: Do not write *Rubber* or *Rochester, Minnesota* when you can indicate the scope of your composition by an added phrase: *Rubber—from Forest to Factory; Rochester, Minnesota: the Home of the Mayo Brothers.*

Note.—A *title* is not the same as a *subject.* If your instructor assigns a general subject like "A Character Sketch" or "An Exposition" do not use such a subject as a title but sharpen it to a point thus:

ZEKE, THE VILLAGE PEDDLER
CENTERVILLE NEEDS A LANDING FIELD

In narration it is permissible to use a title which challenges interest, even if the meaning is not at once clear:

ONE IN A THOUSAND
STARS AND SOAP
WOULD YOU EVER IMAGINE?

The title must be appropriate; however, and by the end of the story the appropriateness must be felt.

A CONTROLLING IDEA OR THESIS

Either have in mind or actually write out a sentence that expresses your *thesis* or *governing idea:*

St. Louis as a Place of Residence

Thesis: St. Louis, having prosperous industries and efficient schools, is a good place to bring up a family.

A Boy in the Cotton Country

Controlling idea: I want to give the reader a lively sense of the fun of being a boy in a small town in the cotton belt.

If you hold fast to a controlling idea you will know what material to include and what to reject. You will know how to marshal your points for orderly progress to a goal. You will know when you reach the goal and when to stop.

IRRELEVANT MATERIAL

Do not introduce material which is useless, or foreign to the purpose of the theme.

> Gross irrelevance in a composition on *An International Court:*
>
> We shall never have peace among the nations until they unite in a powerful association for the settlement of disputes. I believe we need a strong tribunal for settling other issues in our own country, particularly in regard to labor difficulties, of which I have been for many years an observer. I believe that a great struggle between capital and labor is inevitable, and that the day of conflict is not far off. [In the second sentence the writer begins to wander from the subject. In the third he drops the International Court altogether and launches into a discussion of labor wars.]

ORDER OF PARTS

Bring related material together. Do not begin one topic, pass on to another, and then return to the first or to one allied with the first. One way to secure order is to make notes on cards or scraps of paper which may be shuffled and rearranged. Another way is to make an outline, placing together all material needed to complete one topic. For this purpose a very simple outline may be sufficient.

Related topics scattered:

St. Louis as a Place of Residence

1. Location
2. Industries
3. Climate
4. Educational Institutions and Amusements
5. Health
6. Business Opportunities

Related topics brought together:

St. Louis as a Place of Residence

1. Location, Climate, Health
2. Business Opportunities, Industries
3. Educational Institutions, Amusements

There are two problems in arranging material:

1. To bring the material together into logical divisions,
2. To arrange these divisions in a natural or progressive order.

Choose an order suitable for your subject matter and your purpose with the reader.

1. Next-in-Time Order. Place first that which happens first, and later that which happens later. This order is normal in narration and often useful in exposition, particularly in an explanation of a process.
2. Next-in-Space Order. Place first that which one would see or encounter first, and proceed to that which is nearest. This order is normal in description.
3. Next-in-Importance Order. Place the most important matter first, the next in importance second, etc. This is the order common in newspaper articles, business letters, and advertisements. Or, reverse this order by using the

4. Order of Climax. Hold back the more important divisions of the subject until the end, or near the end. This order (the opposite of the one last stated) is useful wherever a strong conclusion is desired.
5. Order of Opposites. Proceed from one object or idea to another which is opposite or in contrast.

These are the common ways of arranging ideas. Other types are in the main variations of those given already.

6. General-to-Particular Order. Give first a general idea or total impression, and follow it with details. (This method may, of course, be reversed.)
7. Simple-to-Complex or Well-Known-to-Less-Familiar Order. Place first that with which the reader is familiar, or which he will easily understand. Follow it with what is unknown, difficult, or intricate.
8. Order of Common Experience, or Common Sense. Arrange material as the reader naturally expects to receive it.

ORDER AS DETERMINED BY SUBJECT OR READER

Order is sometimes determined by the nature of the subject. Thus if we write about *Making a Blueprint* we can hardly escape using a next-in-time order. If we describe *A Landing Field* we can hardly escape using a next-in-space order. If we give a scientific account of an animal we can hardly escape some such enumeration as head, body, limbs.

Order is sometimes determined by the needs of the reader. The newspaper reporter puts the important idea first because the reader may desert him. The novelist usually holds back the climax of the story to create suspense.

DEDUCTIVE VS. INDUCTIVE STRATEGY

In exposition a writer has a choice of two strategies.

(1) He may reveal his purpose or plan at the outset. This method of announcing the main proposition in advance is often called the *deductive* method.

(2) He may reveal his purpose only at the end, or near the end. This method of stating the main proposition at the end is often called the *inductive* method. It has (or *can* have) the advantage of gradually increasing interest. It can be used for breaking unwelcome news gently, as in a sales talk.

If I begin an exposition thus: *Chain stores often treat their employees unfairly* and then give supporting details or evidence I am using deductive strategy.

If I begin by telling my difficulties in buying groceries from a chain store clerk and end with the general proposition (*Chain stores often treat their employees unfairly*), I am using inductive strategy.

EXERCISE

Which of the foregoing orders (time, space, etc.) might be applied to the following subjects?

1. What I Call a Good Dinner
2. An Attractive Show-window
3. How to Catch a Trout
4. Vulcanizing a Tire
5. The Stadium during a Game
6. Reasons for Owning a Radio
7. Good-by Chivalry
8. House-cleaning and Mind-cleaning
9. The Intelligence of the Collie and the Pekingese
10. Importance of Credit in the Business World

Revise the following in such a way as to eliminate irrelevant ideas.

> My home town has all the characteristics of the typical country village. The last census was taken on a Saturday night. We went about it in such a business like way that we

had completed the work within a few hours. The census proved that our population totals nearly eight hundred. But regardless of the smallness of the place, we have an educational system of which we are proud. Two years ago three communities consolidated and began the building of a new high school.

Recast these outlines to secure a more orderly arrangement.

Giving a Dinner

1. Serving
2. Planning
3. Preparing

The Avocado

1. Shape and size
2. Taste
3. Outside appearance
4. Inside appearance

Mexico—the Treasure House of the World

(Combine under two main headings: *Crops* and *Mineral Wealth.*)

1. Corn
2. Beans
3. Silver
4. Gold
5. Coffee
6. Copper
7. Sugar cane
8. Lead
9. Quicksilver
10. Oil

•

Outlines

32. Use an outline to secure clearness in writing a long composition, and in general to systematize and test your knowledge in all subjects. First learn how to make a Topic Outline (built of noun topics; see *a-d*), and later learn how to make a Sentence Outline (built of complete sentences; see *e*).

A. THE TOPIC OUTLINE

A. Build a topic outline of headings (usually nouns or their equivalent) which indicate the important ideas in a composition, and their relation to each other. Conform to the following model:

Economic Waste in the Oil Industry

- I. Waste through unsound methods of production (resulting from the pressure of competition)
  - A. Disregard for scientific efficiency in favor of immediate profits
    - 1. Drilling a hundred wells where one well could recover the oil
      - a. Duplication of drilling costs
      - b. Decreased production of individual wells
    - 2. Allowing the gas that brings up the oil to escape (after which expensive pumping is necessary)
  - B. Abandoning wells when initial cheap production ends
    - 1. Waste of oil left in the abandoned wells
    - 2. Danger to neighboring wells
  - C. Damage by fire and water resulting from cheap construction
- II. Waste through wildcatting and other fraudulent practices
  - A. Sale of worthless securities
  - B. Operations by persons whose motive is to make exorbitant profits rather than to produce oil

B. INDENTION AND USE OF SYMBOLS

B. Indent and number all headings properly. Indent headings that are coordinate (that is, of equal value) an equal distance from the margin. One inch to the right is the usual distance for successive subordinate headings. When a heading runs over one line make the second line begin an inch to the right of the place where the first line begins. The advantage of this method of "hanging indention" is that it makes the numerals and letters (I, A, etc.) stand out prominently.

In a long or complicated outline

$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{I.}\\ \text{II.}\end{array}\right\}$ Use Roman figures for the main heads.

$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{A.}\\ \text{B.}\end{array}\right\}$ Use capital letters for the subheads.

$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{1.}\\ \text{2.}\end{array}\right\}$ Use Arabic figures for the sub-subheads.

a.⎫ Use small letters for yet smaller
b.⎭ divisions.

In a short, simple outline

1.⎫ Use Arabic figures for the main heads.
2.⎭

a.⎫ Use small letters for the subheads.
b.⎭

Faulty indention:

Sources of energy which may be utilized when the coal supply is exhausted

1. Rivers and streams, especially in mountain districts
2. The tides
3. The heat of the sun

Correct hanging indention:

Sources of energy which may be utilized when the coal supply
is exhausted

1. Rivers and streams, especially in mountain districts
2. The tides
3. The heat of the sun

C. PARALLELISM

C. Use parallel form for ideas that are parallel in thought. Forms differing widely in grammatical rank should not be placed in a series, unless defect in language makes parallelism impossible.

Use a noun or a noun equivalent (gerund, infinitive) as the core word in each heading of a topic outline.*

---

* The reason for building each heading around a noun is this: outlining is division, and the noun ideas are the ones that lend themselves most easily to division. (One can divide *hunting* into *rabbit hunting*, *fox hunting*, etc.; but one cannot easily divide the verb *hunts* or the adjective *dangerous*.)

Faulty because lacking in parallelism:

I. Benefits of our forest service
A. Protection of our forests [noun topic]
B. They replant barren areas [sentence]
C. Use the resources intelligently [predicate]

Right: **I. Benefits of our forest service**
A. Protection of the remaining forests
B. Reforestation of barren areas
C. Intelligent use of forest resources
[all noun topics]

Right: **I. Duties of the forest rangers**
A. Protecting the remaining forests
B. Replanting barren areas
C. Using the forest resources intelligently
[all gerunds]

Right: **I. Purpose of the Forest Service**
A. To protect our remaining forests from fire, insects, and human pests
B. To replant barren areas
C. To use the forest resources for grazing, recreation, etc.
[all infinitives]

D. COORDINATION AND SUBORDINATION

D. Avoid faulty coordination and faulty subordination.

To coordinate is to give two or more ideas equal rank (*co* means *with* or *equal*). To subordinate is to place one idea under another (*sub* means *under*).

A subordinate point should not be given equal rank with a main point.

Agents That Cause Seeds to Scatter

Faulty Coordination
1. Wind
2. Water
3. Cattle and other animals
4. Birds
5. Insects

[These three points should be subordinated to a general term like "Living creatures."]

Right

1 Wind
2. Water
3. Living creatures
    a. Birds and insects
    b. Cattle and other animals

Excessively detailed subordination should be avoided.

Too detailed

A. The McClellan Orchard
    1. Situation
        a. On a northern slope
    2. Nature of soil
        a. Sandy
    3. Kind of fruit
        a. Apple
        b. Cherry

Avoid a single subheading; add it to the preceding line or omit it:

Right

A. The McClellan Orchard
    1. Situation: a northern slope
    2. Nature of soil: sandy
    3. Kind of fruit: apple and cherry

Note 1.—Since outlining is division, it is illogical to divide any topic into *one* part. If it is really necessary to divide a topic, the division must show two or more subtopics.

An exception is possible in the case of a brief for an argument where the subtopic is not a divided part but a reason. A single reason, if there be but one, may stand unmated.

E. THE SENTENCE OUTLINE

E. Build a sentence outline of complete sentences, properly punctuated.

Problem of the Dwindling Forest

Thesis: The federal government should double its activities to protect and replenish our forests.

I. The government should prevent waste.
    A. It should more effectively control loss by fire and insects.
    B. It should prohibit wasteful methods of cutting (for example, by abolishing the use of the "mechanical skidder").

- II. The government should devise ways to extend the use of substitutes for wood.
  - A. It should find new materials for making paper.
  - B. It should discover new uses for concrete and metal in building.
- III. The government should speed up reforestation.
  - A. It should encourage reforestation by individuals.
  - B. It should subsidize reforestation by states.
  - C. It should increase its activities on a national scale.
    - 1. It should reduce the tax burden on forest lands.
    - 2. It should plant forests at the headwaters of streams as a part of its program of erosion control.
    - 3. It should develop replanting until our control of forests is at least as efficient as that of Switzerland, Germany, and Japan.

Note 2.—Topics as they first present themselves to the mind are seldom phrased or arranged perfectly. They have to be reworded and regrouped in order that their relationships among themselves and their bearing on the subject as a whole may be recognized. Subordinate topics must be combined, not necessarily under large topics which are already at hand, but perhaps under large topics which the student's own thought must supply.

Faulty phrasing and grouping:

Advantages of the Fountain Pen

- I. To refill it, wherever you happen to be, is easy.
- II. Anywhere you go you can take it along.
- III. The point rarely has to be changed.
- IV. The flow of ink is uniform.
- V. In carrying the pen you do not have to carry the ink separately.

The first, second, and fifth topics have an idea in common—namely, that the pen may be carried anywhere without losing its usefulness. The key idea to this group of topics is portability. The third and fourth topics have an idea in common—namely, that the pen renders just as good service at one time as at another. The key idea to this group is uniformity of service. The outline is now easily rearranged:

Right:

Advantages of the Fountain Pen

- I. It is portable.
    - A. The pen may be carried anywhere.
    - B. The ink does not have to be carried separately.
    - C. The pen may be refilled anywhere.
- II. It gives uniformity of service.
    - A. The point rarely has to be changed.
    - B. The flow of ink is uniform.

The Running Sentence Outline

Note 3.—In a Running Sentence Outline every point is not necessarily a complete sentence, but a sentence beginning in any given point is continued throughout every subdivision of that point.

Right [using predicates]:

- I. A garden is valuable because it
    - A. Yields profit
    - B. Provides exercise
    - C. Gives pleasure

Right [using phrases]:

- I. A garden is valuable
    - A. For profit
    - B. For exercise
    - C. For pleasure

For comparison the same idea is expressed below as a topic outline and as a regular sentence outline:

Right [using noun topics]:

- I. Advantages of a garden
    - A. Profit
    - B. Exercise
    - C. Pleasure

Right [using sentences]:

- I. A garden is valuable for several reasons.
    - A. It yields profit.
    - B. It affords good exercise.
    - C. It gives pleasure.

From a comparison of these four outlines it will be seen that the Running Sentence Outline is useful where it is desirable to avoid frequent repetitions of one subject: "It yields . . . It affords . . . etc."

EXERCISE

1. Improve the title and arrangement of topics in the following outline:

Dr. Peterson's New House

1 External surroundings
2 Roof
3 Upper story
4 Foundation
5 Entrance
6 Ground floor
7 Chimney
8 External appearance
9. In a good neighborhood
10 Dr. Peterson wealthy and popular

2. Rearrange the following outline to secure as effective a contrast as possible:

Scene Just Before the Kickoff

1 The home team ready to kick off
2 A multitude of rooters for the home team in the north side of the stadium
3 The visiting team ready to receive the ball
4 A handful of rooters for the visiting team in the south side of the stadium

3. Give a title to the following outline. Place the sentences in order, subordinating some to others. Introduce headings or subheadings of your own, if you find that such are necessary.

A dictaphone is an instrument into which one dictates letters. The instrument later reproduces the words for an operator, who types them.
The dictator does not have to wait until a stenographer is ready.
The operator may turn back a record several times if she fails to understand at first.
The records soon become worn and the sound of the words indistinct; thus a combination of poor dictator and poor operator wastes the time of both.
The dictator who so chooses may compose his letters before or after office hours without requiring the stenographer to put in extra time.
In disputes as to what the dictator said, the record furnishes the means for an accurate settlement.

If the dictator wishes to change the wording, he must say "Correction" and give the new version. If the operator does not hear the record through before beginning to type it, such corrections waste her time and the office stationery.
Many dictators are ignorant, careless, and inefficient, and their dictation is very trying to operators. In offices where large numbers do each a little dictating, some are sure to be slovenly.
Good operators are hard to procure.
The operator may do other work if the machine does not require her whole time.

4. Change the dictaphone outline into a topic outline.

A Direct, Lively Beginning

33. Make the beginning direct and interesting.

DIRECTNESS

Do not begin with needless explanations or details.

CLIMBING MOUNT PROSPECT

Needless explanation: During my freshman year I could not climb Mount Prospect because I entered school so late that I had no leisure for excursions. At the beginning of my second year my time was even more limited because I was trying to make left tackle. It was, therefore, not until last Saturday that my chance at last came. Four of us set out at sunrise.
Direct beginning: At sunrise last Saturday four of us set out to climb Mount Prospect.

Do not write an introduction unless your theme really calls for it. In a long or complex article a preliminary explanation or formal introduction is occasionally desirable; but the need is infrequent in ordinary writing. Do not make trite or general statements before coming to your particular subject.

33

The Automobile as an Aid to the Bandit

Unnecessary introduction: I shall begin my discussion of the automobile as an aid to the bandit by tracing the development of the motor car.

Trite generalization: There will always be men to take advantage of every means offered them to exploit or plunder their fellows.

Direct beginning: The development of the automobile has been accompanied by an increase in crime.

INTEREST

Avoid a dull beginning; gain the reader's attention quickly. The surest method is to be direct. To arouse special interest, begin with a striking statement, a direct personal appeal to the reader, a question, quoted discourse, or inversion (placing first something which in the natural order of material would come later).

How News Is Gathered

Interest gained through a striking statement: It sometimes costs thousands of dollars or even a human life to bring a single item into the daily paper. That is one of the reasons why methods of news-gathering are fascinating to those who study them.

Interest gained through bringing the subject home to the reader: You casually scan the news while you loiter at breakfast over toast and coffee. Yet you seldom think of the difficulties which the gathering of that news involves. Let me tell you of the methods employed by one of the city newspapers.

An Unexpected Swim

Perfunctory: One day last summer a group of us girls went to visit an old farm. Not far from the house was a well. While the rest of us were in the barn Beatrice decided to have a drink at the well.

A Tragic Drink

Interest heightened by direct discourse and inversion: "Help! Help! Get me out of here! Quick!" Muffled cries came from the farmyard.

Beatrice was missing!

We girls tore out of the barn. The old well—where was a rope?

Exercise

Revise these opening paragraphs of themes in such a way as to make them more direct and interesting.

Trucks Can Be Mules

One day last summer I was driving a Ford truck. John Davis was with me. We came to a railroad crossing. I heard a train off in the distance and slowed down—too much. When the truck began to buck, I saw I was in for trouble. I shouted for John to get out and push . . .

Our Local Roads

There has been, first and last, a great deal of comment on the fact that travel on state roads is more pleasant than travel on local roads, because local roads are often in a condition of ill repair. Country roads, in turn, are often better than the streets of a small, struggling city, because the county controls the leading country roads but expends nothing on those portions of thoroughfares which lie within corporate limits. The roads of any given area, therefore, exhibit various degrees of passability, because of the variety of authority which maintains them.

Three years ago the business men of my city began an agitation, not only for better streets, but also for better roads into the country and to adjoining towns.

How to Catch Trout

Everybody has some one thing he enjoys more than anything else. It may be hiking, hunting, collecting stamps, almost anything. As for me, I don't think anything is as good sport as fishing, but you have to know how if you want to catch any fish.

Developing the Thought and Ending Decisively

34. Announce your main points clearly and develop them fully, keeping a sense of proportion. Use transition phrases, if they are necessary, to indicate that you are turning from one main point to another. Paragraph accurately (see **35-39**). **Bring your writing to a decisive close as soon as your main idea is fully rounded out.**

KEEPING A SENSE OF PROPORTION

Give space to the main points of a composition in proportion to their importance.

Example 1: If you live in San Francisco and are writing a composition on Aircraft as Mail Carriers, you will be inclined to discuss too fully the trips between San Francisco and New York. But you should either (a) reduce the amount of this special material or (b) limit your subject to this material alone.

Example 2: In a composition on a man's life do not give so many details about the early years as to be cramped for space when you reach mature achievements. In summaries of books or articles do not report so fully on the earlier sections that you must slight the later.

Note.—The importance of an idea or division is relative, not absolute. Circumstances affect it. A matter inherently of little consequence may be vital to the purpose of a theme. A subordinate topic may be less familiar to the reader than a major one. The end sought, as well as the value of the material, must be considered in apportioning space.

GIVING A CLEAR LEAD TO THE MAIN POINTS

Make clear transitions. Do not throw out "false leads"; that is, do not announce, or appear to announce, a topic which you do not follow up. Do not phrase a minor idea (especially in the opening lines of a paragraph) in such a way that the reader will mistake it for a main topic.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S KNOWLEDGE OF MEN

Clear lead into Point 2: Another of his principles was that supervision should not be constant or minute. He held that every person should be self-reliant. He therefore made it clear to his children that they must work out many of their problems and surmount most of their difficulties for themselves. This belief manifested itself also in his political activities. He would find the man for the task and leave that man largely to his own devices. [It might mislead the reader if the paragraph began in such rambling way as this: "Many executives, and parents too, for that matter, are too bossy. I know of one president who tried to run every bureau in Washington . . ."]

A DECISIVE ENDING

Bring your writing to an effective close. An ending is unsatisfactory if it is incomplete, long drawn out, high-flown, or loosely tacked on as an afterthought.

Incomplete [final paragraph in a theme on *How to Learn the Use of a Library*]: Before turning away from the general books to be found on the open shelves, the student should observe what subjects they embrace. He will learn that the subjects are many, including history, travel, economics, chemistry, and engineering. [The theme ends with a detail. The main subject is left in suspense, perhaps even forgotten.]

Complete through the addition of a summarizing paragraph: Step by step, the student has made himself familiar with the card index, the numbering system, the arrangement of shelves, and the various classes of books, reserved, reference, and general. In short, he has mastered the means of using the library.

Complete through a recurrence to the main thought: In learning the various classes of books the student has performed his last task. Henceforth he is able to use the library to advantage.

Long drawn out: We found the boat on the sand-bar. It was so badly battered that we could never use it again. Of course it had received rough treatment in the rapids, the same as we had. Tom and I were surely grateful that we had got safe to land. We have often mentioned since how extreme our peril had been. We trudged painfully homeward, thinking what a narrow escape we had had. [It is doubtful whether the first two sentences add anything essential to the story. The last four certainly do not, and should be omitted.]

High-flown ending: My conclusion is, therefore, that for a home where one may live and make the most of life, no place can surpass California. It is the most glorious realm the sun smiles upon. [Omit the last sentence.]

Irrelevant ending: Our arrival in Portland, the City of Roses, brought this memorable journey to an end. We had also taken a side-trip to Crater Lake which I neglected to mention at the proper juncture, and I lack the space to describe it now. [Include the side-trip, if you wish, as an integral part of the theme; but do not broach it as a new topic in closing.]

Exercise

Revise these endings in such a way as to make them complete, and strong and decisive.

> When the time came for us to leave, we felt keen regret, for we were enjoying ourselves more than ever. We promised our host that we would come again as soon as we had a chance. After saying goodby, we drove home to the jingle of the sleighbells, unhitched the horses and put them into the barn, and ourselves hurrying into the house, warmed ourselves well and went to bed.
>
> I don't know whether other people feel the same way about such experiences, but to me they mean spiritual, as well as social, refreshment. So you can see that I enjoyed the evening very much. I hope to go again soon.
>
> I don't know why it is that wind has an effect on the minds of people, but it surely does, for on the second day all the fellows were grouchy.
>
> The storm lasted two days and disappeared as quickly as it had appeared. I was glad to see a calm sky. I had a restful feeling as if I had just finished a hard job. Everything seemed calm and peaceful, and everybody felt happy.

THE PARAGRAPH

Paragraph Form and Length and the Paragraphing of Dialogue

35. Indent paragraphs uniformly (in manuscript, about one inch). In dialogue, indicate each change of speaker by beginning a new paragraph.* In all writing begin a new paragraph for each natural division of the thought.

PARAGRAPHING DIALOGUE

"We have no business to be farming here," Mr. Jackson declared. "We'll never get out of the woods. The next generation will find our work useful, but that doesn't help us."

"Pioneers," Miss Peabody said.

"No," he insisted, "damn fools!"

"John!" His wife looked up sweetly from her knitting.

"Damn fools," the little man repeated, "caught by something in the climate or the scenery. We know we can't make a living here, but we try. None of us has enough land cleared. That costs a hundred dollars an acre, or a year of a man's time if he does it himself. None of us ever has a hundred dollars to spare—"

---

* Possible exceptions to the rule requiring a new paragraph for every change of speaker:

A brief dialogue or portion of a dialogue may stand in one paragraph when the purpose of the writer is to subordinate it to a general idea or impression.

Right: He was always cheerful. However few the purchasers, his call rang out and his look was expectant. "Do you never grow discouraged?" I often asked him. "Haven't time, Miss." He smiled as he said it, and turned quickly away. "Paper, paper!"

Successive speeches constituting one side of a dialogue (as when only one side of a telephone conversation is reported) may be written in one paragraph, the omitted parts being represented by a series of dots . . .

"None of us ever has a hundred dollars," his wife corrected.

"And a man's life isn't long enough for him to clear a decent sized place."

—Archie Binns, *The Laurels Are Cut Down*
Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., Publishers

CONSIDERATIONS GOVERNING PARAGRAPH LENGTH

The length of a paragraph is ordinarily from fifty to three hundred words, depending on the importance or complexity of the thought. In exposition the paragraphs should be long enough to develop every idea thoroughly. Short expository paragraphs arouse the suspicion that the writer is incoherent, or that he has not given sufficient thought to the subject. Short paragraphs are permissible and often desirable

1. In dialogue,
2. In description or narration meant to be emphatic, vigorous, or rapid,
3. In newspapers, where brevity and emphasis are required, and in short compositions on complex subjects, where space forbids the development of each thought on a proper scale,
4. In the body of a composition when a brief logical transition between two longer paragraphs is necessary, and in a formal introduction or conclusion.

DIVIDING ORDINARY MATERIAL INTO PARAGRAPHS

Let your paragraphs correspond to phases or divisions of thought. In an article of several pages, paragraph for the main divisions only. If the article is longer, paragraph for each subdivision. If it is less than a single page, make sure that it is unified (see **36**) and include it in a single paragraph.

EXERCISE

Combine this information in two (or at most three) unified paragraphs.

MY VISIT TO THE RODEO

Last summer I went to the Rodeo known as "Frontier Days" at Cheyenne, Wyoming.

The journeying to Cheyenne seemed a part of a modern, simultaneous pilgrimage from all parts of the country to one central shrine.

From east, from west, from north, from south people traveled for hundreds of miles. Most of them went by automobile or by train.

Of course the trip was wearisome and dusty.

The fair grounds were jammed and crowded with people. Many of the visitors had "Western" costumes.

To be sure, these costumes seemed in many instances new and elaborate, and the wearers appeared ill at ease. Yet the effect was startling; it did furnish background for the picture.

The picture itself was a moving one—in two or three senses of the term. The riding and roping contests interested me most.

I had never seen cowboys in action. Here they more than lived up to the expectations I had formed by reading novels and witnessing the hazardous exploits of the screen.

There are two main divisions in the thought:

1. Journeying to . . . .
2. Seeing the . . . .

The second falls into subdivisions: (a) the people, and (b) the action. Whether these subdivisions shall be paragraphed together or separately depends upon the length of the article and upon considerations of unity and emphasis. Since the material is scanty, and since both people and action constitute a part of the spectacle (the larger unit of thought), the subdivisions should ordinarily go into one paragraph.

Divide this very long passage into two unified paragraphs:

Hanging Wallpaper

If a wall is to be papered one should at the outset go through several processes of getting the paper ready. Until all materials are prepared and at hand, no good workman will begin his main task at all. The first thing to do is to cut the strips properly. Another is to mix the paste. Yet another is to apply the paste to the strips without daubing it where it ought not to be. Should any of these preliminaries be omitted, there will be needless trouble later. The lifting of a long strip of wet paper is a delicate task, for if the paper is of a cheap quality it will fall to pieces merely by its own weight. The strip must be made to overlap the adjoining one evenly. At the same time the designs in the two strips must be fitted into each other without a break. Of course the paper must be stuck to the wall, but how would it look if it hung there full of creases and wrinkles? One end of the strip must therefore be attached first, and the remainder must then be brushed smoothly into the right position. The rough ends of the strips must extend close to the ceiling, where they will be covered by the border. Nothing but attention to these various details will enable one to put on the paper in workmanlike fashion.

Complete the following outline:

Hanging Wallpaper

1. How to..
2. How to..

Read this passage, looking for the logical points for division into paragraphs. Then complete the outline at the end.

Monument to a Billion Dimes

Though there are taller skyscrapers in New York, the Woolworth Building still overtops most of its neighbors in Lower Manhattan. Clay-colored in the glare of the daytime and outlined when darkness has fallen by thousands of electric lights, it is, at any hour, from any point of view, an impressive mass of sweeping vertical lines. It reaches down to bedrock, and its steel-and-masonry tower soars to a height of eight hundred feet. In shape it is one rectangle, surmounted by another more slender one, which tapers at last into a triangle, bearing at its apex a flag. You pass through one of the massive doorways and on through the white, echoing corridor to a complicated and yet orderly arrangement of elevators. Woe be to you if, intending to get off at the third floor, you inadvertently step into a through cage which makes no stop below the twentieth. But you will probably prefer to enter the cage marked "Tower Express." You are shot upward at a terrific rate that permits you not a moment to catch your breath or to stop the ringing in your ears. At the fifty-fourth floor you are directed out upon a balcony. From here you look down upon roofs uncountable, upon the river full of ships, upon ever-twisting swirls of car-tracks, and upon streets where the human beings seem mere hurrying mites. You feel the insignificance of men, and of yourself. When you descend into the building again, you find to your amazement that it is a city within itself. On nearly every floor are attractive lounging rooms where you may buy almost any article desired, dine, have a manicure, call a uniformed policeman, send telegrams, write or mail letters, take healthful exercise, or engage in a game of billiards. Valets or maids are ready to wait on you. Jewelers, florists, architects, lawyers, invite your patronage. In the lower floors you will even find banks, national, state, and local, with their combined safety vaults in the basement. Also in the cellars are heating plants, water and electric light plants, machinery to run elevators—a bewildering maze of iron, stationary or in motion. Your greatest wonder is that this complexity, this luxury, should be made possible by the little, familiar, red-front ten-cent stores, scattered throughout the United States.

This article falls into three main divisions:

1. The appearance of..........................from..............................
2. The..
3. The..

Each of these divisions (particularly the last) has subdivisions of thought, but in an article of this length (three handwritten pages) the separate paragraphing of subdivisions would produce a choppy effect. The material should stand in three paragraphs.

Unity in the Paragraph

Unity means oneness — singleness of thought.

36. Build each paragraph about one central topic or thought. Cancel elements that ramble from the point or that make against unity in the general effect.

In description or narration an *impression* or *event* may be the central theme, but in most paragraphs—particularly in exposition—the central theme should be a *term* (like *Provincetown*) or a *proposition* (like *Franklin was versatile and shrewd*).

A. Unity violated by wandering far from the topic:

THE ADVANTAGES OF TRAVEL

I enjoy travel mainly because it makes us acquainted with different types of people of various countries. Of the European races, I believe I like best the English. It is natural that we should be most drawn to the people related to us by blood and language. In fact I am in favor of America's seeking a defensive alliance with Great Britain. Many persons feel that there will not be another war; but I disagree. I think the instinct for war is implanted in human nature, and can never be rooted out.

[The topic shifts from *travel and races* to *the English* and *an alliance* and *war*. The thought expressed in the opening sentence should be developed; instead, it is abandoned and forgotten.]

B. Unity obscured by failure to use a topic sentence to pull sentences together:

MY EARLIEST YEARS

I lived in Richmond five years. I was healthy, full of animal spirits, ready for fun and mischief. In school I was neither distinguished nor dull. My religious training was ordinary; I belonged to the Congregational Church. I was, of course, affected by the many reminders of Richmond's historic past. Shortly after my eleventh birthday the family moved to Cleveland. I finished the grade school there. It was not until I entered at Cleveland High School that my eventful years began.

> [To the topic announced—the writer's life in Richmond—only a part of the paragraph is relevant. To a broader topic—an uneventful childhood—the entire paragraph would be relevant. This broader topic should be given expression in a sentence to be placed at the beginning of the paragraph: "My childhood was uneventful."]

C. Unity marred by intrusion of a sentence not entirely relevant:

MY EARLIEST YEARS

I next lived in Richmond. In school I advanced from . . . I often visited . . . I saw . . . Virginia is certainly rich in stories and places that remind us of its historic past.

> [The last sentence has no obvious connection with the topic of the paragraph, the writer's life in Richmond. It should be so phrased as to carry the evidence of its unity with this topic: "I was, of course, influenced by the many reminders of Richmond's historic past."]

EVIDENCE OF UNITY IN THE WHOLE COMPOSITION

Note 1.—Show that the thought of a paragraph makes a definite step in the thought of the whole composition.

Unity of paragraph with the subject not shown [The paragraph is from a theme on *Reasons Why the Indian Ceased to Resist the White Man,* and some of the reasons have already been stated]:

Buffaloes once ranged the prairie, thousands in a single herd. They were easily killed, and *they meant to the Indian what grain, pork, beef, and mutton meant to the white man.* Then our government began the systematic slaughter of the buffaloes. The process was continued until the species was almost annihilated.

> [Only the underscored words give any indication how the thought of the paragraph is connected with the general subject; and these words show the connection but dimly. Definite evidence of unity is required. It must take the form of an opening sentence: "Another reason for the cessation of resistance was the destruction of the buffaloes," and of an added sentence at the close: "When the Indian's meat supply was taken from him, his power of making war on an extensive scale had departed."]

REASONABLE FREEDOM IN INFORMAL WRITING

Note 2.—In informal writing a reasonable amount of freedom is permitted; one may slightly change the direction of the thought, or touch upon a related idea not important enough to form a paragraph to itself.

Near-violations of unity in informal writing:

A Book that Interested Me

I have lately read with keen pleasure James Fenimore Cooper's romance *The Pilot*. It contains an excellent portrayal of the men who "go down to the sea in ships." The portrayal is based on firsthand observation; Cooper had been a sailor himself. After he had retired to a life ashore, he was one day reading Scott's *Pirate* and found so many blunders, due to the author's being a landsman, that he resolved to write a sea story which should truly reflect actual nautical conditions. *The Pilot* was the outcome of his resolve. In *The Pilot* he succeeds but moderately in picturing the officers. He of course gives special attention to John Paul Jones, who appears in the story in semidisguise. But he draws the common sailors with vivid and realistic power. The cockswain

Long Tom Coffin, a sort of Natty Bumppo of the sea, is the one unforgettable character in the book.

> [The topic is the portrayal of seafaring men in *The Pilot.* With this topic four elements in the paragraph lack strictly logical connection: (1) the writer's pleasure in reading the book, (2) Cooper's having been a sailor, (3) the account of the composition of the narrative, (4) the reference to another of Cooper's heroes, Natty Bumppo. But (1) forms a natural introduction. (2) and (4) so blend with the main thought as not to obscure unity. Only (3) really diverts attention from the topic; and even it has sufficient relevancy to make us hesitate whether to include it for the sake of its special interest or to exclude it for the sake of unity.]

Cooper plainly had affection for the ocean itself as well as for the men who sailed it. He makes us smell the brine, hear the rush and breaking of waves, catch the sweep of winds, and thread with elation the reef-strewn channels. When he describes its limitless spaces, its changing horizons, and the great clouds driving above it, he is not only enthusiastic—he is genuinely poetic. I consider *The Pilot* the very best of the oldtime sea yarns.

> [The last sentence forms a conclusion, not to the paragraph, but to the whole theme. It should be placed in a paragraph to itself.]

EXERCISE

Criticize the following paragraphs. Is the topic clearly announced? Do the sentences all bear directly, obviously, upon the topic? Does the paragraph end promptly? What changes would you suggest to promote unity?

NEXT YEAR?

If I were to be in school next year, I should, for a number of reasons, specialize in history. The main reason is that I plan eventually to study law, and to this end no study is more helpful and useful than history is.

Then, too, economics as a minor is something I or anyone will find helpful, especially in keeping up with the times. New ideas and inventions are being wrought so rapidly that if a person is not wide awake he can hardly comprehend what is going on in the world. In the next place, history is a study by which we learn what advances have been made, and how they have been made, from earliest civilization, through the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, to the modern day. This makes history interesting as well as instructive. And finally, one is very often inspired and encouraged by the acts of some man whom we read about in history.

How Pictures Are Cut

The manufacturing of motion pictures has developed into a science. The acting is not the one all-important thing, though many people imagine that it is. We see hundreds of motion pictures, but seldom realize the hidden art that must be applied by both the camera man and the "cutter." The cutter is the man who puts the picture together. He must decide which scenes are to be left long (as they all are when originally taken) and which are to be cut short or omitted. The choice is not a matter of guesswork with him. He does not permit a scene to be drawn out when it is uninteresting and bears little upon the main theme. In fact, the cutting out of needless matter from each scene is much the same revision an author performs after reading and rereading his work. The parts of a film must be in proportion to one another. A part that is cut need not be poor; it may be very good. It may be merely too long with regard to the other scenes. Taste is the criterion in piecing motion pictures, and not chance.

Coherence in the Paragraph

37. Secure coherence by a clear use of order, connection, and parallelism. Coherence (literally *hanging together*) means order and connection.

COHERENCE BY ORDERLY ARRANGEMENT OF SENTENCES

No steady forward progress of thought:

Esther was a beautiful girl who had been brought up by Mordecai, a nephew of her father. She had lost her father and her mother. She was raised to the throne of the empire by Ahasuerus, from a lowly, quiet life in the home. She was a Jewess.

Orderly sequence of sentences:

Esther was a beautiful Jewish girl who had lost her father and mother. She was brought up by Mordecai, a nephew of her father, in a simple, quiet home. From this low estate she was suddenly raised by King Ahasuerus to a place beside him on the throne of the empire.

COHERENCE BY A CLEAR USE OF SIGNALS

(*transitional expressions*)

A generation ago American women who wished to take up farming as a vocation were thought to be fanatics. We knew, of course, that the women of Europe had harvested crops for generations. But we were ruled by certain fears and conventions. Only when the war broke upon us did we tolerate widening the scope of woman's labors. We then discovered that our farms lacked two million hands. We organized an agricultural army. Soon many large farms were managed entirely by women, women quick to learn and patient in difficulties. Now that the war is over, we find that thousands of women are continuing in farm work, both in management and operation.

COHERENCE BY A CLEAR USE OF REFERENCE WORDS

(*nouns, pronouns, correlatives, etc.*)

Jefferson did not believe that the United States government had the Constitutional right to acquire territory. But an exigency arose which caused him to set his theory aside. Louisiana had been in the possession of Spain. But Spain had of late disposed of it to France, and thus the vast territory that bordered on ours had fallen into the hands of Napoleon, builder of empires. One possibility was to take no action regarding this menace to our future safety as a nation. The other possibility, springing from Napoleon's temporary willingness to sell, was to buy Louisiana outright. Jefferson supported the American commissioners abroad in preferring the latter course. His career affords many proofs of his practical statesmanship, but none more convincing than this.

> [Each of the underscored expressions refers to a preceding or a following element in the paragraph. The expressions bind the paragraph together and make the progress of the thought easy to follow.]

Note.—A transitional sentence may be necessary to indicate the relationship of one paragraph to another, or to indicate to the reader what progress has been made and what new turn of thought is to be encountered. Ordinarily the right place for a transitional sentence is the beginning of a paragraph.

Transitional sentence pointing forward:

Let us turn to the advantages of the hot-water system of heating . . .

Transitional sentences pointing backward and forward:

We have considered the advantages of the hot-air system of heating. Let us now turn to those of the hot-water system. . . . [Or] Having considered the advantages of the hot-air system . . . [Or] Marked as are the advantages of the hot-air system of heating, those of the hot-water system are more marked still . . . .

COHERENCE BY PARALLELISM

Sentences tied together by repeating (in a large and not narrowly rhetorical way) the same pattern:

Summers were always thrilling to us children. Some years we would go to the beach. Other years we would go to the mountains. Once we even packed into the woods on foot, hiking for nearly a month. Always we were out of doors—a delightful contrast to our winters cooped up in a small apartment.

EXERCISE

Copy the following paragraph, underscoring the transitional phrases once and the topic sentence twice.

Aaron Burr was not a traitor to his country. That is to say, he was not a traitor by the Constitutional definition of the term. For article three, section three, of the Constitution asserts that "Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." Burr did neither of these things. It is true that, in a decidedly indiscreet manner. he prepared an expedition against Mexico, intending to make his daughter empress of that country. As is perhaps natural, the people of his time thought that he was planning a secession movement. However, if he had not been basely deceived and arrested by his supposed friend, James Wilkinson, the comparatively innocent intent of his maneuvers would have been discovered, and he would not have borne an ignominious name throughout history. In spite of the fact that John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States, acquitted Burr, historians have been slow to treat his case honestly.

Rewrite the following material, dividing it into clear, logical paragraphs. Include a topic sentence in each paragraph. Add anything that appears to be lacking; cancel whatever is superfluous. Underscore transitional expressions once and topic sentences twice.

Window decorating is an art which cannot be acquired in a few days. Too often the same style is used over and over, and the monotonous effect is overlooked by the decorator. Just of late the use of panels has been very popular. But already panels are becoming tiresome. We do not care to look at the same thing all the time. If we are to be interested in a display, something distinctive and original must be shown. Imitation cannot be practiced forever. Why not have a week of one display, followed by a week of something else? In thinking of windows I am reminded of the story about the boarders who one day left slips of papers by their plates, and on every slip was written, "Hebrews 13:8". The landlady immediately hunted her Bible and looked up the reference. She found, "The same yesterday, today, and forever." The color scheme is very important in preparing a window. Without color, a window can be so lifeless that people passing do not pay any more attention to it than they do to the window of a company that has gone out of business. The color selected for the background should be one that best brings out the qualities of the goods for sale. Dark shades are better for windows than the light shades, for pale colors may give the window a sickly or unattractive appearance. Contrast is often desirable. A line of toilet articles may be strikingly displayed in a window of dark colors. Some combinations are positively bad, for instance scarlet with black, or ordinary red with violet. Merchants who trim windows in such colors as these may think that people lack a knowledge of such things, but taste will quickly tell people that colors are wrong, whether they know why or not. If a person stops to look at a window, he may go in and buy something. Windows should be given earnest attention.

The Topic Sentence

A topic sentence is a sentence that states in a clear and compact way the subject that is dealt with in a composition or a paragraph.

38. **When the occasion appears to demand it, build the paragraph around a topic sentence.** If you wish to prepare the reader for what is to come, place the topic sentence at or near the beginning. See to it that all other sentences develop or expand the thought of the topic sentence.

TOPIC SENTENCE FIRST (A FORECASTING STATEMENT)

Kitchens have shrunk in size since the days of our grandmothers. The reason is not so much that we know more than our grandmothers as it is that conditions of living have changed. Kitchens are no longer used to store winter supplies which must be kept from the cold. They are no longer used for laundry and dairy work, spinning and sociability. A house in which there are many workers, in which there is bountiful providing and constant hospitality, still needs a large kitchen. On the other hand an apartment whose dining room will barely permit six at table may well have a kitchen in which everything is within hand's reach.

TOPIC SENTENCE SECOND (A GENERALIZING STATEMENT)

In the last century setting type and redistributing it was a slow process done entirely by hand. Now the linotype, a fascinating machine, makes typesetting nearly as rapid and simple a process for the operator as is typewriting. With the linotype machine the operator presses keys much like those on a typewriter. For each key pressed a matrix of the proper letter drops into position. A matrix is a small plate containing a letter-shaped depression into which melted lead is run to form a type. At the end of each word the operator strikes a space-key, and a wedge-shaped slug or spaceband drops into place. When a line is complete these spacebands force themselves up as far as they can go and thus distribute space between words and spread the line out to a fixed line-length. The line of matrices and spacebands then goes to the mold where the slug or "line o' type" is cast in lead. The lead slugs then slide down into a trough called the receiving galley, ready to go to the presses. Meanwhile the machine sorts and returns to their places the matrices and spacebands, ready for use again. This whole remarkable process goes on automatically while the operator types on his typewriter-like keys

TOPIC SENTENCE AT THE END (A SUMMARIZING STATEMENT)

Any man who was in the trenches in the last war will remember how on a quiet night some young sentry would fire at nothing at all just to warm his hands. In answer an opposing sentry would loose a few shots. Then more shots would follow. The machine guns would reply. Then the light artillery and the trench mortars on both sides would join in, until finally the night would be a daft inferno. That is war, and that is how the war started. War was the inevitable result of people standing about, their fingers on triggers, expecting a war.

TOPIC SENTENCE AT THE BEGINNING, REPEATED AT THE END

(This "sandwich" type is a very common pattern for an isolated paragraph—one that stands alone as a little composition in itself. It is called a "sandwich paragraph" because the two topic sentences above and below, are like two slices of bread, with a filler of specific details or examples or ideas between.)

Our country has a hunger for paper, and still more paper. Our yearly consumption is more than 180 pounds for every man, woman, and child. This fact becomes more interesting when you consider that our nearest competitor, Great Britain, uses less than half that amount, while China uses not half a pound per person. Of course our supply is put to many uses aside from that of feeding the printing press. We use paper cartons, paper plates and spoons, and fiber boards of all sorts. We have paper rugs under foot and wallpaper overhead. Every day the United States invents some new product to use more paper.

PARAGRAPHS NOT CLEAR WITHOUT A TOPIC SENTENCE

Topic sentence required to pull scattered examples together:

The mean-spirited fellow may rise to action when the national safety is endangered. The quiet chap may prove a daredevil on the field of battle. The boor who pushes past you through the door you have opened may give you his place in the last boat lowered from a sinking ship. The thief or the cheater may be the volunteer when only a transfusion of blood can save a child's life.

> [The items are, as they stand, unrelated; yet they are plainly meant to develop a single thought or purpose. Something is required to bind them together and to give them point. The missing element is a topic sentence at the beginning: "Emergencies bring out unsuspected qualities."]

THE RELATION OF A SENTENCE OUTLINE TO TOPIC SENTENCES

Note 1.—In exposition the structure will be conspicuous and easy to follow if each paragraph has an expressed topic that is immediately clear. The topic sentences of such an exposition can be gathered into an outline to show the structure on which the writing is built. Below, for example, is an outline for an essay. The four numbered sentences may be used as the topic sentences of successive paragraphs.

The Disagreeable Optimist

1. The optimist is often not natural or sincere, because his thoughts are centered on keeping up an appearance of being happy.
2. He is intrusive, for he thrusts comfort upon those who wish to mourn, and repeats irritating epigrams and poems about cheer.
3. He is undiscriminating, in that he prescribes the same remedy, "good cheer," for everybody and for every condition.
4. He is sometimes harmful, because he tells us that the world is going well, when conditions need changing, and need changing badly.

Exercise

Rewrite the following paragraphs. Announce the topic and develop it fully, securing unity and coherence throughout. Invent an accurate title for each passage.

1. We often have periods of depression and industrial crises, but we seldom know why. Some of the causes are known, and some are unknown. In our competitive system, production is not well adjusted to consumption. In the rush to invest capital in new enterprises, the chances for poor adjustment are greatest. A manufacturer does not know how heavy the demand for his commodity will be, and so will not adjust his output correctly to the demand. There will then be an overabundance of products on the market, and the plant will have to cease activities until the supply has decreased to normal. Prices will drop; workmen will be thrown out of their jobs, and there will be a general depression, the forerunner of an industrial crises. The adjustment of production is one great factor to be considered. Many critical situations have arisen because the manufacturer did not adjust his output to the demand of the market.

2. Psychology is important because it tells us the little that is known about attention, association, memory, and interest. Without a knowledge of these, a writer of advertisements would have little idea of the best way to attract the attention of prospective buyers, or of the way to hold interest after it is secured. The aim of the advertiser is to present his commodity in such a way that pleasant association will be aroused. If the reader is pleased with the advertisement, he will be interested in the article; and when the need for it comes, he will remember that particular brand. The function of the advertisement is to attract attention, to create desire and confidence, and finally, to stimulate action.

Paragraph Patterns — Methods of Developing the Expository Paragraph

39. Develop each paragraph into a well-rounded whole.

Employ any method or any combination of methods that fits your thought and your purpose. Most useful of all are the enumerative method and the comparative method.

A. THE METHOD OF ENUMERATION

A. Make your thought clear by enumerating specific details, etc., in 1, 2, 3 order.

1. *Enumeration of Details (Parts, Kinds, Types, Qualities, Characteristics)*

What Are We Made of?

All plants and animals are built of units called cells. In size these cells vary greatly, but most of them are microscopic. The one-celled plants called bacteria, for example, are so small that 25,000 strung end to end measure only one inch. In shape cells vary also according to their purpose. Those in bones are round with irregular projections. Those in muscles are long or cigar-shaped. Those in nerves are very long and thread-like. Those in the outer skin are thin and flat. In substance all cells are the same regardless of shape, size, or purpose. They are all composed of a soft jelly called protoplasm—the only form of matter in which life exists, and within which life takes place.

2. *Enumeration of Steps (Stages, Origins) in the Order of Time*

How a Roman Road Was Made

Roman roads were built with systematic care. The first step in making a Roman road was to dig down to solid ground and lay stones as large as a man could take in his hands. On these stones, smaller ones were pounded solidly with wooden beetles. On these, gravel or broken brick and pottery were laid. On main traveled roads, paving stones were laid over all, carefully fitted together, as level as a floor. Swamps required the additional precaution of driving piles for the foundation, and valleys or rivers were spanned by viaducts or bridges of masonry.

3. *Enumeration of Reasons (Causes, Results, Advantages, Benefits, Uses)*

Advantages of Living in a Cage

Lions bred in captivity are actually handsomer and more healthy than those in the jungle. Their size and coat are superior because they get better food. Their color is unfaded by tropical sun. Their mane is more luxuriant because it is not torn by underbrush. And they live to a riper age. In freedom a lion rarely lives more than ten years. In captivity he lives to twenty-five or thirty.

4. *Enumeration of Examples or Instances*

Is Our Trend Toward Dictatorship?

In recent years critics have raised a clamor against the trend of our government toward dictatorship, but in reality this trend is an old story. Our political history shows frequent shifts in the balance of power between the legislative and the executive branches of government. In the eighteen thirties when Jackson was president it was popularly said that the executive was assuming control over Congress. In the nineties Wilson wrote that Congress left no power to the president. Again in the nineteen thirties many persons complained that Roosevelt had turned Congress into a rubber stamp. Throughout our history these shifts have occurred at more or less regular intervals regardless of which of the major parties was in power. In fact, rapid shifts sometimes occur during the period that one party is in office. In the administration of Lincoln, a Republican, the power of the executive was greater than ever before. In the next administration—that of Johnson, also a Republican—the power of the executive fell to its lowest ebb.

B. THE METHOD OF COMPARISON OR CONTRAST

B. Make your thought clear by using comparison or contrast. Give the points of similarity or difference between two objects or ideas.

Cash or Credit?

Should we pay cash or buy on credit? [I] If a person pays cash, he reaps two advantages. [A] He pays a lower price. [B] He learns thrift, because every time he makes a purchase he sees the actual money leaving his hands. Rather than part with the money he will dispense with the article. Thus at the end of the year he not only has a fuller purse, but he has made thrift a habit. [II] If a person buys on credit, though of course he buys more, his name comes to the attention of the proprietor of the store, who never waits on him personally and might never hear of him were his account not carried in the books. Thus if he buys at the right places, and makes prompt settlement at the end of the month, he forms valuable acquaintances and soon becomes known as a man to be trusted.

[The paragraph contrasts two main ideas, I and II. Under I two points of difference are enumerated.]

C. OTHER METHODS (COMBINATIONS OF A AND B)

1. *Definition*

A logical definition is always a comparison, pointing at likeness and difference. If the terms used in a definition are technical or unusual, each should be explained. (A definition that is expanded to the length of a paragraph ordinarily makes use of enumeration as well as comparison.)

What Is a Marine?

For a long time I have found myself wondering whether a marine is a soldier or a sailor or neither. Now I know. A marine is a soldier who serves on a vessel of war. Like the regular soldiers the marines are equipped and drilled for land battle. Like the regular soldiers they serve under military regulations rather than naval ones. Unlike the regular soldiers the marines spend the greater part of their time aboard ship where they serve as guards and orderlies. On land they serve more often as glorified policemen than as fighters. When a disturbance breaks out in or near a port, the marines are rushed there to be disembarked and to restore order. If the disturbance is serious the marines may be reinforced by the regular army.

2. Elimination

You may clarify a term by showing what it is *not* and what it *is*. The method is of course that of comparison. (Ordinarily some use is made of enumeration also, the enumeration being subordinated to the comparison.)

WHAT IS LIBEL?

Just what does constitute a libel published in a newspaper is often hard to determine. It is not criticism of the government or of governmental officials, for the Constitution provides for freedom of speech and of the press. It is not denunciation of political policies, for such denunciation is the normal procedure in every political campaign. It is not the printing of news that is false or only partially true, for errors are made unavoidably every day. Libel is the malicious defamation of a person, made public by writing, and tending to provoke him to anger or to expose him to public contempt or ridicule.

3. Repetition

You may clarify a statement by repeating it in other words or by repeating it from new angles of approach. (Repetition is merely a rhetorical device—not a method of logical division as enumeration and comparison are. Repetition usually takes the form of the sandwich paragraph illustrated in **38**.)

THE TRUE DEMOCRAT

The true democrat is a person I admire. By *democrat* I do not mean a member of a political party. Nor do I mean the masquerading snob who goes around "being nice to inferiors." I mean the person who is sincerely interested in every human being as an individual. For the true democrat no one is disqualified by lack of social position, obvious charm, or clothes. For him no freshman is so humble as to be beneath his notice; no sophomore is so lofty as to be unworthy of his interest. The true democrat greets everyone with sincere enthusiasm as if to say, "I like you. You are interesting." By his sincerity he makes everyone feel liked and successful. He holds one key to success in nearly anything he wants to do. I repeat, I admire the true democrat.

4. Combination of Several Methods

TWO KINDS OF WEALTH

[Definition] We may define wealth broadly as that which satisfies human want. But we shall understand the term better if we divide it into the two kinds. [Enumeration] *Wealth includes free goods and economic goods.* [Contrast] Free goods, as a rule, are found near at hand in abundance; but the most obvious characteristic of economic goods is scarcity. Free goods, being everywhere at man's disposal, are ordinarily to be had without expense or labor; but economic goods are obtained only at a cost in money and effort. [Enumeration of Examples] Free goods include such things as fresh air, sunshine, and water. Economic goods include such things as food, fuel, and clothing. [Definition Continued] Of course the division is not hard and fast. Free goods may be changed into economic goods by becoming rapidly scarcer. [Example] Standing timber, for instance, may come under the ownership or control of individuals, so that the supply is limited. [Contrasting Example] That same timber in the form of the lumber in the houses of a deserted mining town may again become common property; but the likelihood of such reversion is rare, and [Definition Continued] in general we may say that economic goods do not become free goods.

[Note that in the middle of this paragraph an enumeration is thrown into a single sentence. Each of the items *food, fuel,* and *shelter* might be developed into a paragraph—or even into a chapter of a book.]

The methods of *enumeration* and *comparison* are not merely "ways of developing the paragraph." They are the ways of all thinking—whether we are organizing a sentence, a paragraph, or a long exposition. We *enumerate* ideas or things if they are alike in kind. We compare or contrast them if they are different.

The paragraph on *Two Kinds of Wealth* could very reasonably be made into two paragraphs. If much illustrative material were at hand, the topics *free goods* and *economic goods* might become the great divisions of a long exposition, and each important item of the enumeration (food, fuel, shelter) might become the topic of a paragraph.

Exercise

Copy the following paragraphs, underscoring the transitional phrases once and the topic sentence twice. Be able to name one or more of the methods of development used.

Plato's Ideal Social Order

1. Recently I read a book which explained several types of social reform. In his *Republic* Plato outlined a communistic scheme of government quite different from any modern social system. Society, according to his plan, was to be divided into classes, not according to wealth, but according to special fitness: the artisans, the soldiers, and the magistrates. The last two were to be the governing classes, and were to be educated for their high positions in a community in which all possessions were to be held in common. Contrary to our present economic status, no man was to labor for himself, but each was to do what was for the good of all, and to be rewarded from the common treasury. At the present time the family is regarded as the nucleus of the social system. But Plato felt that, in so far as the upper classes were concerned, family interests and prejudices might interfere with the interests of the state. He therefore provided that all children were to be taken from the parents and reared as a public charge. The guardian or governing class was then to live like a single, unified family, its main duty and pleasure being to look after the interests of the laboring class. Plato's theory

differs from modern socialistic theory in that Plato desired communism for only the upper classes of society.

Power versus the Enjoyment of Living

2. Today we hear sung the praises of industrial advancement: "We travel more rapidly than ever before. We have more conveniences." That is true. But has there not been, for every advance, almost as great a loss? During the Renaissance emphasis was not on power alone. Everywhere was an intensification of the whole of life—in color, perfume, music, as well as in daring exploits of arms and thought and exploration. Everywhere were fine images, fields of tulips and the scent of new-mown hay, glitter and color of fine fabrics and paintings, and a bit of pageantry and pride in hand labor skillfully done. Near the end of the period, meals had become a series of delicately flavored foods. One by one the senses were being refined. Then came modern industry. Houses and cities became dirty and unsanitary. Rickety, under-nourished children worked in mills, far from the common sights of field and farm. They no longer knew violets, buttercups, the smell of mint, locust trees, raw earth opened by the plow, warm hay piled in the sun. The sky was shut out from them by a pall of smoke. Under the stress of competition, food was adulterated, rancid bacon was treated with boric acid, and preservatives were added to milk. With mass production the sense of taste became degraded. Yes, industrialization has made us move faster and farther, but has it deepened and broadened our enjoyment of the whole of life?

What Patriotism Is and Is Not

3. Patriotism is not membership in an order of the descendants of noble sires. One's patriotic ancestors may have exhausted the strain of loyalty in the blood. Patriotism is not Fourth of July display. One may explode firecrackers, or fly the flag, or make the eagle scream for no more than a momentary enthusiasm. Patriotism is service of country with the best of one's heart and brain. It is steadfast and intelligent devotion to all things which contribute to the permanent welfare of one's people.

THE FOOL IN ELIZABETHAN DRAMA

4. The functions that the fool serves in an Elizabethan play are these. He makes more prominent the actions of the main character. He satirizes the manners and customs of the time. He provides relief for the audience after tragic or serious scenes. If it were not for the fool I think we might find some of Shakespeare's plays rather dull.

CLEAR THINKING

Unsupported Statements

40. Do not be, or appear to be, arbitrary in your statements. Give sufficient support to any idea which a reader might question.

Sheer ignorance or prejudice: Doctors are all humbugs. None of them ever did a patient any good. [Such extreme statements are never justifiable.]

Generalization on flimsy evidence: Of the thousands of persons I passed as I roamed about Boston, not one spoke to me. I ask no better proof that New Englanders are cold. [Of the many ways of testing cordiality only one is used here, and this one is valueless in large cities anywhere.]

Generalization from an insufficient number of instances: The Glastonbury family were miserable in an apartment. So were the Edmonsons and the Kingerys. From their experience I am confident that everybody who lives in an apartment is miserable.

Invented example: The military training camps develop honor and manhood. Let us take two boys, Edgar and Ralph. Edgar goes to a camp one summer, and at the end of three months comes back an honest and upstanding youth. Ralph idles at home, and after three months is a sneak and a coward.

Citation of biased authority: Coal miners are selfish and shiftless. Hapgood, the wealthy mine owner, has given me instance after instance of his men's rapacity and lack of ambition.

Citation of incompetent authority: *Les Misérables* is the greatest novel ever written. My friend Canfield, the grocer, who has read the book seven times, is emphatically of this opinion.

Omission of an essential link in thought: As you were given a chance to defend yourself, we conclude that you are guilty. [After *yourself* add *and failed to avail yourself of it.*]

Assumption that what follows is necessarily a result: The country adopted a high protective tariff, and because of this prospered greatly. [Perhaps prosperity would have come without the tariff.]

Disregard of alternate possibility: The Congressman did not secure the passage of the measure. Therefore he was only pretending that he wanted it passed. [Perhaps he was unwillingly thwarted.]

Disregard of adverse facts: A country which has a king cannot be democratic. [Great Britain has a king and yet is admittedly democratic.]

Disregard of a possible difference in conditions: Woman suffrage has been successful in America. It would be successful in China. [Forces not operative in America might render it futile in China.]

Misleading comparison: Since the darkest hour precedes the dawn, the fact that we are outclassed in the coming field meet makes us likely to win it. [A superficial analogy does not strengthen a statement logically unsound.]

Reasoning beside the point: Automobile racing, being dangerous, should be prohibited by law, because the speed demons, if the law does not forbid them, will not desist of themselves. [The main point at issue is not whether racers will desist voluntarily, but whether racing is dangerous to life.]

Reasoning in a circle: Written examinations should be abolished because there is cheating. We know there is cheating because cheating always accompanies written examinations. [The writer assumes a condition and then uses the assumption to prove that the condition exists.]

Begging the question: The brutal game of football should be abolished. [The word *brutal* begs the question. Brutality is one of the points to be established or refuted; it should not be insinuated as a thing already proved.]

Attempting to prove what is obviously true, or obviously false, or obviously beyond the writer's power to determine: Women have done more good for the world than men. [Proof on such a question is not obtainable.]

Shifting the meaning of a word: He is a good banker, and therefore a good citizen. [The first *good* refers to ability, the second to moral and social qualities. A man may be a good banker, but a pernicious influence in the community.]

EXERCISE

Change the following sentences (a) to give needed support to the thought or (b) to qualify the thought in accordance with reason.

1. He was seen near the jeweler's shop and hence must be the person who stole the diamonds.
2. Barbarous people are happy and therefore education is an evil
3. Two can live as cheaply as one, and for this reason it costs nothing to be married.
4. Since the directors asked him to resign, he was ousted from his position.
5. You must not expect honest dealings from people, for people are not honest.

Contradictory Statements*

41. Do not heedlessly permit an idea or element to contradict itself or another idea or element. Do not heedlessly permit it even to appear to be thus contradictory. Be on your guard against the most common error, the use of the double negative (*never saw nobody, not hardly, not but one,* etc.)

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* For the careless use of *but* with alternating ideas see **3**, note, and the last example in **44C**.

Element missing: Delay the opening of your parachute and you will reach the ground safely.

Right: Delay the opening of your parachute until there is no longer a chance that it will become entangled in the airplane, and you will reach the ground safely.

Qualification and transition needed*: Peter was a disciple of unswerving loyalty. . . . He denied his Master three times in one night.

Right: On most occasions Peter as a disciple was staunchly loyal. . . . He was not always true to his better nature. He denied his Master three times in one night.

Subordination and time relationship needed**: Too many come to school with interest in only one branch of work and lose interest in others.

Right: Too many come to school with interest in one branch of work, having lost interest in others.

Topsy-turvy logic: Some persons can better afford to pay for medical services than other persons can, and for these the county has established a free hospital. [Say *can less well afford.*]

Topsy-turvy logic: He played in three games, *giving him* the right to wear the varsity sweater. [He . . . *giving him?*]

Right: He played in three games, thus earning the right to wear the varsity sweater. [Or] The fact that he played in three games gave him the right to wear the varsity sweater.

Inaccurate statement of reason: Liquids travel up a straw by creating a suction.

Right: Liquids travel up a straw because suction creates a vacuum.

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* For a general treatment of transitions see **44B.**

** For subordination as a means of ranking ideas see **44D.** For subordination as a means of emphasis see **48A.**

Double negative: He isn't no better now than he was then. [Logically, *not* and *no* cancel each other and *not no better* means *better*.]

Right: He isn't any better now than he was then. [Or] He is no better now than he was then.

Inaccurate: We couldn't hardly see through the mist.

Right: We could hardly see through the mist. [Or] We couldn't see distinctly through the mist.

Inaccurate: She doesn't have but one.

Right: She has but one.*

EXERCISE

Change the following sentences to secure complete harmony in thought and expression.

1. Of late years science has made great advances in cancer.
2. In early New England the day of rest was hard to endure.
3. His losing two kings won the checker game for his opponent.
4. Surplus crops cause a great deal of destitution.
5. There weren't only but thirteen states in the Union at first.

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* Certain negative expressions which are either illogical or partly illogical are nevertheless sanctioned by usage. Only when we wish to make sure that we convey our thought with precision do we need to avoid them.

Slightly illogical: I don't think I shall.
Precise: I [do] think I shan't.

Sometimes ambiguous: All of us couldn't go. [Or] We all couldn't go. [Could only some go, or could none go?]
Precise: Not all of us could go.

The question "Do I understand you to say . . .?" is illogical because the person who does the saying cannot know what the hearer understands. The question "Do you say . . .?" or the question "Am I to understand [or *Do you wish me to understand*] you to say . . .?" is preferable.

Definitions and Comparisons

A. DEFINITIONS

42A. To define a word explain its meaning in other terms. At need distinguish the word from other words with which it may be confused.

Uninforming: An archeologist is a person who studies archeology.
Clear: An archeologist is a person who studies records and remains for evidence about life and customs of the remote past.

Right: A quadrilateral is a plane figure having four sides and four angles. [This definition accords with traditional logic. It (a) names the class to which the individual member belongs, (b) distinguishes the member from other members of the class.]

Do not define a word by saying it is a "when" or a "where." Define a noun by another noun, a verb by another verb, etc.

Wrong: Splitting hairs is when a person makes very fine distinctions.
Right: Splitting hairs is the making of very fine distinctions.

Wrong: To immigrate is where foreigners come into a country.
Right: To immigrate is to enter a country as a foreigner.

Wrong: A simile is when one thing is compared with another.
Right: A simile is a figure of speech in which one thing is compared with another.

Exercise

1. Define *Delaware* (so as to exclude other states), *window* (so as to exclude *door*), *fruit* (exclude *vegetables*), flower (exclude *weed*), *rain, metal, a submarine.*
2. Give an informal definition of *conceit, legislation, athletics.*
3. Biology is when one studies plant and animal life.
4. Claustrophobia is where a person is afraid to be shut up in a room.

5. The definition of a monitor is where a heavily armed boat of light draft can go near the shore.

B. COMPARISONS

B. Make comparisons accurate and consistent. Do not carelessly compare a thing with a mere part or quality of another thing. In comparing an individual with a class reveal whether the individual belongs to the class.*

Wrong: His speed was equal to a racehorse.
Right: His speed was equal to that of a racehorse.

Wrong: Of course my opinion is worth less than a lawyer.
Right: Of course my opinion is worth less than a lawyer's.

Wrong: Like all primitive races the pygmy women do the work.
Right: Like all primitive women [or *Like the women of all primitive races*] the pygmy women do the work.

Self-contradictory: Chicago is larger than any city in Illinois. [Chicago belongs to the class *any city in Illinois*. Thus the sentence states that Chicago is larger than Chicago.]
Right: Chicago is larger than any other city in Illinois.

Self-contradictory: Chicago is the largest of any other city in Illinois. [The sentence states that Chicago is the largest member of a class to which it does not belong.]
Right: Chicago is the largest of all the cities in Illinois. [Or] Chicago is the largest city in Illinois.

Ambiguous: I trust you more than John.
Right: I trust you more than I trust John. [Or] I trust you more than John does.

Comparison merely hinted: We found the organ recital different.
Comparison completed: We found the organ recital different from others we had recently heard.

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* For grouping into classes see **44E**, Note 1.

Exercise

1. Many English words, like the teller at the bank, preserve their old meanings.
2. In no country are there such famines as are suffered in China.
3. You men are paid three dollars more than any other factory in the city.
4. Unlike the era of the jigsaw puzzle and miniature golf, badminton is with us to stay.
5. The drivers in Philadelphia are the sanest and most careful in the world compared to those in Los Angeles.

EXERCISE

Give more precise expression of thought to these sentences.

1. The pictures on the wall are different from most walls.
2. Humiliation means that a person is greatly humiliated.
3. Perhaps a child likes her rag doll better than any of her dolls.
4. The cost of room, board, and tuition is low at this school, compared to the more fashionable schools.
5. Sight-reading is where the pianist trains her fingers and mind to respond at once to the printed notes.

Unrelated or Superfluous Ideas or Elements

A. UNRELATED IDEAS

43A. If ideas have no relation to each other, do not combine them. If they are related, make the relationship clear.

Not really related: Coal miners wear little oil lamps in their caps, and they seldom receive very good wages. [Two statements may pertain to the same person or thing without being really connected in thought.]

Right: Coal miners wear little oil lamps in their caps. They seldom receive very good wages.

Relation not shown: I went to the hotel and Hoyt had not registered there.

Right: I learned at the hotel that Hoyt had not registered there.

Exact relation doubtful: The coffee business is not difficult to learn, and the most important work in preparing the coffee for the market is the roasting of the green berries. [The two statements may be written independently. But if the writer wishes to relate them, he should show what the precise relationship is.*]

Right: The coffee business is not difficult to learn, since the most important work in preparing the coffee for the market is the roasting of the green berries.

Note.—The thought of one sentence must not be permitted to run over into a second sentence which introduces a new idea.

Faulty: The stranger walked into a little country store. It was also the post office, and on the counter he saw a large cat.

Right: The stranger walked into a little country store which was also the post office. On the counter he saw a large cat.

Exercise

1. He has a glass eye and inherited a million dollars.
2. The woodcock is so foolish and deliberately walks into a trap.
3. There are periods of inflation. People invest their money recklessly, and there are also periods of deflation.
4. I don't tell people to mind their own business. At least not in so many words and sometimes I wonder why.

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* Ideas only slightly related to each other must not be combined as independent statements in the same sentence. They may be placed in the same sentence, however, (a) if one is subordinated to the other and (b) if the one thus subordinated attracts only casual attention and does not seem incongruous.

Wrong: The Spartans did not care for literature, and they lived in the southern part of Greece.

Right: The Spartans lived in the southern part of Greece. They did not care for literature. [Or] The Spartans, who lived in the southern part of Greece, did not care for literature.

5. The next thing the camper should do is to make a bed, and the branches of the spruce are the best.

B. SUPERFLUOUS IDEAS OR DETAILS

B. Do not carelessly restate in a second expression or sentence an idea implicit in a first.* Do not encumber the main idea of a sentence with unnecessary details.

Crude repetition: In tracing the cause of the uprising we find the uprising was caused by oppression and unjust taxes.
Right: In tracing the cause of the uprising we find oppression and unjust taxes.

Crude repetition: Snell conducted a grocery business. He sold groceries.
Right: Snell conducted a grocery business.

Overloaded with details: In 1836, in Baltimore, Poe married Virginia Clemm, his cousin, who was hardly more than a child, being then fourteen years old, while Poe himself was twenty-eight.
Right: In 1836 Poe, then twenty-eight years old, married his cousin Virginia Clemm, who was only fourteen.

Exercise

1. The old man, who had risen, I suspect, about his usual hour, came yawning from his room. He was very sleepy, or at least he looked so, as he crept down the hallway.
2. In selecting a topic to write on I have selected music.
3. If an artist were to draw a picture of this scene, he would have to observe closely to paint a true picture of it.
4. The very simplicity of the plot shows Pinero's skill in writing so ingenious a play from so trivial a plot.

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* For the needless repetition of an element see **16**. For the needless repetition of the thought contained in an element (tautology or overlapping expressions) see **15**.

5. The total yardage for the eighteen holes of a golf course is about six thousand yards.

Exercise

Separate unrelated ideas, make actual relationships clear and exact, and recast sentences to prevent needless repetition or the use of excessive detail.

1. The returning Crusaders brought with them oriental learning and found the peasantry impoverished.
2. Once a month they go to the house of a member to play bridge. They have dinner together at a restaurant first and then they go to the member's house and begin playing.
3. In one case are Chinese coins of assorted sizes, each with a square hole in the center, and in another are Indian arrowheads. Many of these have been chipped and shaped with exquisite craft.
4. A mirage is an illusion and the traveler thinks he sees water where there is none.
5. Such men are more interested in the market reports than the general news. They glance at the front page and then turn at once to the financial section and read the market reports. They don't stop at the editorial page or the sports section at all. The thing they are really interested in is the market reports.

Loose Thinking in General

A. HALF-EXPRESSED IDEAS

44A. Do not halfway express an idea. Make sure that the reader gets your exact thought in full.*

Half-expressed idea: When I look at the heavens at night, it is always the moon.

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* For incomplete statements which involve omissions in grammar rather than gaps in thought see **4, 13C**, and (in part) **13B.**

Right: When I look at the heavens at night, it is always the moon that enchants me.

Half-expressed idea: I have had experience in every phase of the automobile.
Right: I have had experience in every phase of automobile work. [Or] I have had experience in every phase of automobile driving and repairing.

Incomplete: Haunted houses, in my opinion, is only a superstition.
Right: The belief that houses can be haunted is, in my opinion, only a superstition.

Incomplete: You must reckon with our higher scale of wages.
Right: You must reckon with our higher scale of wages, as compared with wages in Mexico.

Vaguely general: If a tariff is not maintained on foreign sugar, a large area of land will be almost useless. [Land where? Useless why?]
Right: The chief industry of several of our Western states is growing sugar beets in soil which will produce nothing else. Unless a tariff is maintained on foreign sugar for the protection of the industry, a large area of this land will become almost useless.

Exercise

1. He is one of those persons.
2. When you mention Easter, it is of course those colored eggs.
3. Mrs. Perry's clothes are always more distinctive.
4. In looking for the trouble we forgot the tank.
5. To leave bottles and cheese on the doorstep gets the milkman up early.

B. TRANSITIONAL IDEAS AND ELEMENTS

B. Do not omit an idea or an element necessary to show the relation between two thoughts, or between two or more parts of one thought.*

Cause transition needed: The Romans were great road-builders. They wished to maintain their empire.

Better: The Romans were great road-builders, *because means of moving troops quickly were necessary* to their empire.

Cause and time transitions to be made accurate: Americans were welcomed in Texas up to 1830, but they were forbidden, as soon the Americans would rule Texas.

Better: Americans were welcomed in Texas up to 1830, but *thereafter Mexico, fearing they would gain power and rule Texas, forbade* further immigration.

General-to-particular transition needed: Modern machinery often makes men its slaves. Last summer I worked for the Chandler Company. [This gap in thought occurs oftenest between the first two sentences of a paragraph or theme.]

Better: Modern machinery often makes men its slaves. *This truth is illustrated by my own experience.* Last summer I worked for the Chandler Company.

Apparent contradiction to be bridged: A subordinate clause cannot stand alone. It has a subject and a predicate.

Better: A subordinate clause cannot stand alone. It has, however, a subject and a predicate.

Disturbing element to be removed: Our class in physics last week visited a pumping station in which the Corliss type of steam engine is used. *The engines are manufactured by the Allis-Chalmers Company of Milwaukee, Wisconsin.* This type of engine is used because it has several advantages. [Omit the italicized sentence here. If it is needed, introduce it later.]

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* For broader treatments of coherence see **9** and **37**.

Exercise

1. The coal company did not like the idea. They expect to include it in the printed rules for the mine.
2. We wandered through the rooms, admiring the furnishings of the house. It was painted green, outside.
3. The lawn is grown up in weeds. The lady who lives there is always very neat.
4. I used to wonder what grandmother had in that old locked trunk in the attic. She kept her wedding dress there.
5. Some people are afraid that radio will extend the influence of cheap forms of entertainment. Ministers may preach sermons to thousands, and college professors may teach classes in distant places.

C. NATURAL ORDER OF IDEAS

C. Place ideas in such sequence that the boundaries and relationships between them will be clear.

Put first things first: We went to the station from the house after bidding all goodby.

Better: We said goodby to all, and went from the house to the station.

Mingled fact and opinion: Jefferson won the presidency by a narrow margin. That he won was fortunate. Burr was not only an adventurer, but a thorough scoundrel. [Does the statement of fact end with the first sentence, or does it continue in the second and third?]

Separated fact and opinion: Jefferson won the presidency by a narrow margin. That he won was *almost certainly* fortunate. *In the opinion of some authorities* Burr was not only an adventurer, but a thorough scoundrel.

Indirect discourse (or indirect quotation) mingled with independent thinking: George Eliot said that the better part of genius is industry. A man may by merely working hard for a lifetime have great success, or he may not accomplish anything. [What does the second sentence represent, George Eliot's statement or the personal opinion of the writer of the theme?]

Better: George Eliot said that the better part of genius is industry. But I cannot fully believe her, because a man may work hard for a lifetime and accomplish much, or not accomplish anything.

"Buried" topic: Many persons from our educational departments do not obtain positions. College graduates do not always find employment readily. Many holders of the A. B. degree in arts and sciences are looking vainly for work. Even many young engineers lack jobs. [The second sentence contains the unifying idea. But that sentence not only interrupts the flow of other statements; it is so placed as itself to be inconspicuous. It should be written at the beginning and followed by the illustrations, or else prepared for by the illustrations and then used as a conclusion.]

Confusing use of alternating ideas: Both teams are strong, but they are so different it is hard to compare them, but I shall try. The better men can be put on the mound by the Bulldogs, but the Wildcats are superior behind home plate. On the other hand, the Bulldog outfield is more reliable, but the Wildcats are not without an advantage to match, but have a snappier infield. However, the Bulldogs are more dangerous at bat, but on base it is the Wildcats whose skill is an unceasing menace. Nobody can say which team is the better, but there is less unsteadiness in the playing of the Bulldogs, but the Wildcats make up for this because they play smarter ball than the Bulldogs ever dreamed of. [Clearly the passage has not been planned as a unified whole. In addition to the constant shifting of the thought, the sentence structure and the careless use of connectives make for complexity.]

Better—comparison of wholes: To compare two good but dissimilar teams is my difficult task. The Bulldogs have the more effective pitchers, a more reliable outfield, the more dangerous batters. They also play steadier ball. But the Wildcats have better catchers, a snappier infield, the more skilful base-runners. Moreover they play smarter ball. Nobody can say which team is the better. [The writer says all he has to say about the first team; then uses *but*, and proceeds to discuss the second team. Note that he could omit even this single use of *but* without causing confusion.]

Also better—item by item comparison, with parallel structure: I shall attempt a comparison of the two teams, a task rendered difficult by the difference between them. The Bulldogs are superior on the mound, but the Wildcats behind home plate. The Bulldogs have a more reliable outfield, but the Wildcats a snappier infield. The Bulldogs are more dangerous at bat, but the Wildcats on base. The Bulldogs play steadier ball, but the Wildcats smarter ball. Nobody can say which team is the better. [Parallel structure gets rid of many *buts*, and yet keeps the thought clear. It is so effective, indeed, that every *but* in the passage could be eliminated without risk of ambiguity.]

Exercise

1. In the Orient millions of sandals are sold, used, and made.
2. The lecturer says we were foolish to fell our forests as we did. The facilities for outdoor recreation have been reduced needlessly. Floods and dust storms desolate the land.
3. A member of my club ran around the racetrack twice. People with weak hearts should not overexert. On the third lap he dropped dead.
4. He did not consent at first, but I could see that he wished to, but he hesitated for a time. Finally, though, he said he would go along.
5. Napoleon rose to power by the turn of the century. At one time or another he conquered nearly all the chief European nations. He was the greatest man the world has produced.

D. NATURAL RANKING OF IDEAS

D. Do not heedlessly set down all ideas as equal. Combine, subordinate, or strike out elements or statements to show the relative importance of the thought.*

Failure to indicate comparative values: Lincoln was a tall, gaunt man. He is the representative of American democracy at its best. His early life was one of poverty and hardship.

Right: Lincoln rose from poverty and hardship to become the representative of American democracy at its best. In personal appearance he was a tall, gaunt man . . .

Faulty: The frog is a stupid animal, and may be caught with a hook baited with red flannel. [Is the writer trying to tell us *how to catch frogs*, or merely that *frogs are stupid* Here the two ideas appear equally important.]

Right [giving importance to *frogs are stupid*]: The fact that the frog can be caught with a hook baited with red flannel proves his stupidity.

Right [giving importance to *how to catch frogs*]: The frog, being stupid, will bite at a piece of red flannel.

Importance reversed: One day I was trying to catch butterflies when I stepped on a snake.

Right: One day when I was trying to catch butterflies I stepped on a snake.

Modifier ranked as the equal of a noun: The old man was a watchmaker and repairing watches six days every week. [Insert a comma after *watchmaker* and strike out *and*.]

Needless inclusion of unimportant statement: It was a huge, dingy factory. One of the windows was cracked. Over two thousand men and women worked there. [Omit the second sentence.]

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* For subordination as a means of emphasis see **48A**. (But emphasis and the ranking of ideas constantly overlap.)

Exercise

1. The car cost only seven hundred dollars. It is equipped with a radio, and this is included in the cost.
2. One day the diver was looking for pearls when a shark rushed at him.
3. Camels have been used in that region for thousands of years. They have a mean disposition. They may be called the ships of the desert.
4. The Eskimo was starving. He cut a hole through the ice. At last he caught a fish.
5. There are two kinds of sugar. Some people prefer their tea unsweetened of course. One is cane and one is beet.

E. LOGICAL CONFORMITY

E. Do not permit any discord in logic between ideas or elements. Do not employ an idea or element which itself is contrary to reason.

Inaccurate: He liked to pore over some strange map, as Africa. [Africa is not a map.]

Right: He liked to pore over a map of some strange region, such as Africa.

Inaccurate: The process of making the celluloid film is originally in strips about two feet wide by two or three hundred long.

Right: The process of manufacture results in a celluloid film about two feet wide by two or three hundred long. [Or] The celluloid film is made in a strip about two feet wide by two or three hundred long.

Inaccurate: At the head of the subscription list is a well-known name. He gave fifty dollars.

Right: At the head of the subscription list is a well-known name. Fifty dollars is the amount written opposite it. [Or] At the head of the subscription list is the name of a well-known person. He gave fifty dollars.

Inaccurate: His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained **a** vice-president.

Right: His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained a vice-presidency. [Or] His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained the position of vice-president.

Inaccurate: It is proof of true loyalty to watch young fellows lay down their lives.

Right: For young fellows to lay down their lives is proof of true loyalty. [Or] One sees proof of true loyalty when he watches young fellows lay down their lives.

Inaccurate: In 1928 he was elected a member of the American Academy of Arts and Letters and is now a director of the organization. [In 1928 he . . . is now . . . ?]

Right: In 1928 he was elected a member of the American Academy of Arts and Letters; he is now a director of the organization.

Ungrammatical use of an element: Smothered in committee kept the measure from passing.

Right: The fact that it was smothered in committee kept the measure from passing.

Grammatical function performed twice: All of these he saw them. [*Saw* has one object in thought, two in grammar.]

Right: All of these he saw. [Or] He saw all of these.

Past tense indicated twice: I should have liked to have been there. [At the time of the main verb the speaker's wish was *to be* there.]

Right: I should have liked to be there. [Or] I should like [now] to have been there [then].

Grouping into Classes

Note 1.—Make any grouping into classes logical. Do not bring unlike things into a series supposed to consist of like things. Do not bring overlapping things into a series of which the members are supposed to be mutually exclusive.*

Unlike things labeled as alike: Here are photograph galleries, machine shops, gardens, bookbinding materials, carpentry, and various other occupations and trades which the monks can follow. [The word *other* points to a list of *occupations and trades*, whereas most of the items indicate *places to work in* or *materials to work with.*]

Right: Here are photograph galleries, machine shops, gardens, bookbinderies, carpenter shops, and various other places where the monks may work at almost any occupation or trade.

Illogical overlapping: You should eat oranges, lemons, and citrus fruits. [The members of the series are linked as equals, although the third comprises the first and the second.]

Right: You should eat oranges, lemons, and other citrus fruits.

Information about Books

Note 2.—In giving information about books, do not confuse the title with the contents or some part of the contents. Be accurate in referring to the time, scene, action, plot, or characters.

Illogical: Shakespeare's *Hamlet* occurs in Denmark. The drama takes places over several weeks. He speaks more lines than any other character in Shakespeare.

Right: The scene of Shakespeare's *Hamlet* is laid in Denmark. The action covers a period of several weeks. The prince speaks more lines than any other character in Shakespeare.

Accurate Use of Possessive Case

Note 3.—It is usually awkward and slightly illogical to attribute possession to inanimate objects.**

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* For comparing an individual with a class see **42B.**

** Usage justifies many exceptions, particularly (1) expressions that involve time or measure, *a day's work, a hair's breadth, a year's salary, a week's vacation,*

Awkward: The farm's management. The stomach's lining.
Better: The management of the farm. The lining of the stomach.

The possessive case may be used in pointing out the doer of an action, but preferably is not used in pointing out the receiver.

Right: We listened to the man's denunciation of his foes.
Somewhat illogical: We listened to the man's denunciation by his foes.
Better: We listened to the denunciation of the man by his foes.

Exercise

1. Did you notice the room's ceiling?
2. Train for Kansas City, Tucson, and points west of the Mississippi. All aboard!
3. The character of Sidney Carton is the real hero of the novel.
4. His work is a bookkeeper.
5. From his boyhood he had been fascinated by yachts, rowing, surfboard riding, motor craft, and any other kind of boats you could name.

EXERCISE

See that all elements are properly adjusted, and that all ideas are expressed logically and fully.

1. Dave, my friend's name, is an expert.
2. The story of *Huckleberry Finn* is in reality Mark Twain himself.
3. He worked very hard. He made an extremely poor record.
4. Toads sealed up in solid rock has been disproved.
5. In the group were Serbs, Spaniards, Danes, and Europeans.
6. Some people like to do queer things, like the telephone booth in a drug store.
7. The theme of this novel tells how a peasant, Jean Valjean, from a convict comes to be a respected citizen.

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a cable's length, and (2) expressions that involve personification, explicit or implied, *Reason's voice, the law's delay, for mercy's sake, the heart's desire, the tempest's breath.*

8. The company increased the horse power of its engines. A demand grew up among its customers for machinery which could do a greater amount of work.
9. If you would like a bargain, they are selling fur coats at the department store.
10. Much coffee is raised in Brazil. Brazil is the largest country in South America. Of late years there has been an overproduction.

STYLE

Naturalness and Smoothness*

A. SIMPLICITY

45A. Make a statement simple rather than stiff and self-conscious.

Rhetorically impersonal manner: The writer of this autobiographical sketch was born at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1922. His parents . . .

Personal, natural: I was born at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1922. My parents . . .

Formal statement of simple thought: The theory of relativity is hard to understand. But experience has shown that a homely comparison may make baffling matters clear. Let us see therefore whether such a comparison will help us to understand the theory of relativity.

Lighter and simpler: The theory of relativity is hard to understand. A homely comparison may make it clearer.

Stilted use of transitions: When I have a theme to write, I first choose my subject. As soon as I have chosen my subject, I take out my paper. On the paper I then make a rough outline.

Less rigid: In writing a theme, I first choose my subject and then make a rough outline on paper.

Exercise

1. Permit me to devote the beginning of the present communication to imparting tidings of the town in which you reside.
2. One may no longer say that one does one's work as one sees fit.

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* Other articles which deal with obstacles to naturalness and smoothness are **3** (the *and* sentence), **4** (omission of words), **5–9** (lack of clearness in expression), and **40–44** (lack of clear thinking).

3. Great machines are now used at harvest. Because of the former, the latter is completed with marked expedition.
4. We have solved the problems connected with determining at what establishments we shall obtain our meals. First, we get breakfast at home. Next, we have lunch at a café. Finally, we again repair to the refreshment hall in question for dinner.
5. At the automobile club you take pencil and paper and represent by means of a rough sketch the positions occupied by the two cars in the intersection at the moment they collided.

B. ORDERLINESS

B. Make a statement orderly. Do not let its elements straggle or be divided without reason, and do not let them, on the other hand, become congested or entangled.*

Interruptive elements: While he (the governor) hesitated, the evil (unemployment) grew.
Better: While the governor hesitated, unemployment grew.

Suspended construction: Do you know the reason for and the answer to these complaints?
Better: Do you know the reason for these complaints, and the answer to them?

Needless separation of like elements: When snow is on the ground, birds come right into the shed when the caretaker scatters grain.
Better: When snow is on the ground and the caretaker scatters grain, birds come right into the shed.

Somewhat straggling and awkward: The bill is voted on first by the House of Representatives or by the Senate, depending upon which body it originated in.

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* For repeated "tacking" of thought in contrasts which employ *but*, see the last example in **44C**.

Better: Whether the bill is voted upon first by the House of Representatives or by the Senate depends upon which body originated it. [Or] The bill is voted upon first by the body which originated it.

The bunching of verbs: The boy who Jane declared whistled denied he whistled.

Better: The boy accused by Jane of whistling denied that he whistled.

The piling up of nouns (cobblestone style): The reasons for the decline in the amount of immigration into our country are our sentiment against increase of population from foreign sources and the laws on the statute books of our government. [The sentence contains twelve nouns and only one verb—the colorless *are*.]

Better: The reasons why immigration into our country has fallen off are that we do not like to increase our population from foreign sources and that we have restrictive laws. [The sentence contains six nouns, one "we," four main verbs, the expletive "do," and one infinitive.]

Exercise

1. He laughed loudly and derisively, quickly stirring resentment.
2. We are aware of, but not greatly disturbed by, this development.
3. He (Kelly) thinks that he (O'Shaughnessy) is trying to thwart his (Kelly's) plan.
4. Because there is sickness in the family he will have to drop out of school because money has become very scarce.
5. Any complaint against the statements or conduct of the employees of this firm should be made at the office of the secretary of the board of directors in the building at the intersection of Eighth Street and Warrenton Avenue.

C. APPEAL TO THE EAR

C. Make the combination of sounds in a sentence or passage pleasant. Do not permit a rhyme, an assonance, or the repetition of a sound or of a form at too close an interval. Do not let rhymes, assonances, or repeated sounds or forms stand at end or other emphatic positions in the sentence or passage.

Repetition of a form: The robins had been scratching for their breakfast diligently. Now they began to sing cheerfully. The humming birds were darting among the flowers merrily.

Better: The robins with great diligence had been scratching for their breakfast. Now they broke into cheerful song. The humming birds were darting among the flowers merrily.

Rhyme: Bert did not dare to go home with wet hair.

Better: Bert did not dare to go home with his hair wet. [Or] Bert was afraid to go home with wet hair.

Repetition of a syllable: We realize that it is a real problem.

Better: We know that it is a real problem. [Or] We realize that it is a genuine problem.

Repetition of a sound though with different spelling: The leafless trees stand out in black relief against the snow.

Better: The bare trees stand out in black relief against the snow.

Use of a word in two parts of speech: The average rainfall is only sixteen inches and falls in the winter months.

Better: The average rainfall is only sixteen inches and occurs in the winter months [or *and is confined to the winter months*].

Use of a word in two senses: It was the first time in a long time that she had been there.

Better: It was the first instance in a long time of her being there.

Similarity of sound without rhyming (assonance): Those Negroes from the South began to shout because they were so happy and proud.

Better: Those Southern Negroes began to shout with elation.

Repetition of initial letters and sounds (alliteration): We shall catch cabbages and kings with our candid camera.

Better: We shall snap various objects and persons with our candid camera.

General cacophony: They sew the seams on sewing machines. [Completely satisfactory phrasing can hardly be had without wordiness. But will the passive voice—a construction usually not to be recommended—lessen the discord?]

Better: The seams are stitched on sewing machines.

Note 1.—Do not carelessly yield to the tendency to repeat a word soon after you have used it. Find a synonym instead, or recast the passage. (See **16B**.)

Needless repetition: Let us agree that, once conditions are ripe, we shall act at once.

Better: Let us agree that, once conditions are ripe, we shall act immediately.

Pronouns and pronominal adjectives, like *it*, *this*, or *that*, are often used again and again without loss of clearness, but with an effect of monotony and verbal poverty.

Monotonous repetition of *this:* Europeans have not had public lands which they could homestead and make their own. In the past we have had this privilege in this country. But this is not true in this age, and our problems have become more difficult on account of this.

Better: Europeans have not had public lands which they could homestead and make their own. In the past we have had this privilege in America. But in our day public lands are no longer available, and in consequence our problems have become more difficult.

Note 2.—Do not carelessly repeat an idea in the same words, especially when there is little matter intervening.

Phrasing repeated: He made up his mind to leave the city. Then an offer of a partnership in the firm was extended him. This came soon after he had made up his mind to leave the city.

Better: He made up his mind to leave the city. Then an offer of a partnership in the firm was extended him. This came soon after he had decided to go away. [Or, condensing] He made up his mind to leave the city. Soon afterward he received an offer of a partnership in the firm.

Exercise

1. But we have but one.
2. The Jackies went clambering and scurrying up the rigging.
3. These writers have put much thought into their writings.
4. The crowd in the grandstand was standing up.
5. Let me call to your attention the confusion which attends a revolution.

EXERCISE

Simplify the manner of statement, improve the arrangement of elements, or correct the faults in sound.

1. To run an automobile properly you should know how the motor runs.
2. Dr. Middleton is fond of port and Sir Willoughby cunningly wins his support.
3. The stamps which the postmaster general ordered issued went out to the various post offices today.
4. The hard heels clumped across the hardwood floor.
5. Of course the country expects the companies to offer competitive bids.
6. Made of birch bark, these canoes suited the roving Indians well, being easy to carry from one stream to another.
7. Frank left the house early, leaving Ruth to wash the breakfast dishes alone.

8. The flight of tourists to the coast during the heat of summer causes the establishment of many concessions in the towns along the beach.
9. Bassanio lacked the money to press his suit in a suitable manner.
10. The flowers had been merely spots of bright color before our eyes before.
11. To obtain a settled job after graduation is a problem, but it gradually works itself out.
12. Dancing, dinners, and movies liven up our lives.
13. The present writer does not pose as an authority on the higher branches of mathematics. He therefore cannot be supposed to be especially informed about calculus.
14. Europeans observe that American children criticize their parents even before a stranger, and stranger still, that the parents do not object.
15. If this measure is to be adopted by the city three things must happen. First, it must be reported out of the committee. When it is reported out of the committee it must be passed by the council. After it has been passed by the council it must be approved by the mayor.

Tone and Imagery

Normally art seeks unity of effect as well as unity of thought. Hence it employs only such elements as work together to a single end or impression.

A. HARMONY OF PARTS OR ELEMENTS

46A. Adapt your language to the thought or mood you wish to convey. Keep the parts of a composition in harmony with its general manner and tone.

Sudden descent to colloquial style: You should soak the embers thoroughly. Throwing dirt on the ashes won't hurt any, either.

[For the last four words substitute *will extinguish any possible remaining spark.*]

Sudden ascent to grandiose manner: The moon rose slowly. We gazed entranced upon the queen of the night. [Say *We gazed upon it entranced.*]

Amateurish interruption of irony: And so they call the game a "moral victory" for themselves? I should think they might! Playing on their own grounds was of course a moral handicap. Why, I bet they outweighed us ten pounds to the man. Keeping the score a tie was, naturally, all they hoped for. [Make the fourth sentence read *Outweighing us ten pounds to the man put them at a terrible disadvantage.*]

Needless change from impersonal manner: A student should practice concentration. He will benefit more than he can foresee. You can get your lessons in half the time if you really put your mind on them. [Put all three statements in the third person or else in the second person.]

Needless inconsistency in the degree of formality: We do not graduate this June. We're first-semester seniors. [Say either *We do not* and *We are* or *We don't* and *We're.*]

Exercise

1. He will have to explain his conduct. It'll stand a lot of explaining.
2. Do you blame me for getting sore when the other driver refuses to dim his lights?
3. Now isn't that a pretty thing to do? I have never heard of such poor public spirit. Doesn't it show a fine regard for other people's rights?
4. We ought to celebrate Mother's Day. No man ever had another friend so true as his maternal ancestor.
5 I'd be willing to bet that Emergency Conservation Work has become the most extensive peacetime project ever attempted by the federal government.

B. FIGURES OF SPEECH

B. Use only such figures of speech and call up only such mental images as go well with each other and with the general idea or picture.

Mixed imagery: The Republicans gained a foothold in the heart of the cotton belt.
Better: The Republicans gained a foothold in the South.

Intrusion of the literal into the figurative: Spring came scattering flowers, and there was rain a great per cent of the time.
Better: Spring came scattering flowers and rain. [Or] Spring came with much rain and many flowers.

Intrusion of the figurative into the literal: You should destroy these pests with poison or spray before they get a strangle hold on your garden.
Better: You should destroy these pests with poison or spray before they ruin your garden.

Revival of a buried meaning: Rome is the outstanding example of an empire that fell. [Ordinarily *outstanding* may not suggest *standing*. But when joined with *fell*, it does.]
Better: Rome is the most conspicuous example of an empire that fell.

Exercise

1. The strong arm of the law has taken a hand in the trouble.
2. When I come upon one of those deserted mining towns my heart feels like lead.
3. Calhoun had logic on his side, but his face was to the past.
4. The quarterback is a dynamo of energy, though he weighs only 148 pounds.
5. He plunges right into the discussion and usually he hits the nail on the head.

EXERCISE

Change these sentences to give them unity of effect.

1. The dawn stalked over the hills in her gray robes at 5:35.
2. We are now at a critical stage in the evolution of democracy, and we'd better watch our step.
3. The room measured eleven feet by fourteen feet six inches, and was a veritable bower of beauty.
4. I was hungry as a wolf and experienced much satisfaction in partaking of the viands.
5. He shoveled some coal into the furnace, and then fired with a great purpose, began to solve problems in trigonometry.

Moderation

47. Except for purposes of special emphasis, express yourself temperately rather than extravagantly. Say the exact thing you mean, not something more than you mean. **Do not exaggerate facts, overstate ideas, or strain for effects.** Be rational. Show poise. **Allow for differences of opinion.**

Obvious exaggeration of a fact: Every time I hear that man lecture it drives me insane.

Better: I find that man's lectures trying.

Obvious prejudice regarding an idea: Socialism is an enemy to human society, and must be exterminated as one would exterminate any plague. The poor, ignorant masses are misled by fanatics and theorists, and array themselves against people who have property. It is mob rule by disgruntled loafers and down-and-outers. Their pitiful intelligence cannot . . .

Impersonal and discriminating: Socialism is a term whose meaning is not at once clear. It is not anarchy or mob rule, for it often inclines to the other extreme, dictatorship. It is not primarily a political method at all, but rather an economic theory. It proposes . . .

Annoying reinforcement of a strong adjective with a strong adverb: An old man in a perfectly stunning suit came out of the shop. He had a Japanese vase that was simply incomparable.

More restrained: An old man in a fashionable suit came out of the shop. He had a Japanese vase that was very beautiful.

Ornate and affected: The musical whisper of the stream may be heard as it impatiently sweeps onward toward the vast, unresting ocean. Its surface is clothed with myriads of precious jewels, under the tender light of the low, golden moon.

Simpler and better: A pleasant murmur comes from the stream. Its ripples are touched with fire by the low moon.

Note.—Understatement as a means of emphasis is sometimes more effective than overstatement.

Quietly emphatic: Johnny, white-faced, was brought down from the ledge. It was noticed that thereafter climbing cliffs for birds' eggs had no particular charm for him.

Exercise

For each of the following sentences decide how much of the thought will stand up under analysis. Then recast the sentence to express this precise degree of thought temperately.

1. The new novel I am reading is by far the best ever written.
2. All that denomination cares for, or ever did care for, is to get more people on its church rolls.
3. In the glow of a thousand lights and the happiness of an evening forever memorable the joyous couples swept along to the throbbing pulsations of the music and the magic rhythms of the dance.
4. The party of the opposition wouldn't in the least mind wrecking the country if its members could but profit while the rest of us went to our doom.
5. I'm so tired I can't move. I'm simply starved to death. I haven't been out with my girl in a thousand years.

Emphasis*

Some elements or statements are more important than others. They should be stressed accordingly. Of all proofs of sound thinking and accurate writing one of the surest is the ability to distinguish between a major idea and a minor or incidental one, and to indicate relative values to the reader.

48. Give each thought and each element the amount—and only the amount—of emphasis it deserves. In thus making known degrees of importance, use whichever of the following methods or devices best suits the immediate need:

- **a. Emphasis through subordination**
- **b. Emphasis through separation**
- **c. Emphasis through position** (beginning and end)
- **d. Emphasis through order of parts** (climax, periodic sentence)
- **e. Emphasis through structure of parts** (active voice, parallelism)
- **f. Emphasis through repetition**
- **g. Emphasis through concreteness**

A. EMPHASIS THROUGH SUBORDINATION**

The mark of childish writing is too much predication. The writer either piles up short, choppy sentences or strings statements together with *and* (see **3**). In either case he gives all his ideas the same grammatical rank. To prevent such structural monotony and to make the basic ideas stand out he should

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* Sometimes varied sentence structure (see **49**) or understatement (see **47**, Note) contributes to emphasis. Sometimes one or the other makes against it.

** For subordination used with the closely related purpose of giving appropriate rank to ideas see **44D**.

1. Reduce predication, and
2. Use modifiers freely by placing the less important matter in subordinate clauses, in participial or prepositional phrases, or in plain adjectives or adverbs.

Too much predication: The weather has become cooler. The nights have grown frosty. The persimmons lose their greenness. Anyone can eat them. They do not make the lips pucker now.

Better: When cooler weather brings frosty nights [subordinate clause], the persimmons, losing their greenness [participial phrase], cease to pucker the lips [main clause] of anyone who eats them [prepositional phrase modified by subordinate clause].

Too much predication: He answered every one of the questions. All his answers were clear.

Better: He answered every one of the questions clearly. [The subordinate idea is expressed by an adverb.]

Primer style: Rooms are marked on the floor. These rooms are about fourteen feet square.

Better: The floor is marked off into rooms about fourteen feet square.

Ramshackle *and* sentence: Adolph went into a paint store and then I saw a crowd standing in the street, and I wanted to know what was the matter and so I went up and asked a man.

Better: After Adolph had gone into a paint store, I saw a crowd standing in the street. Wishing [or *Since I wished*] to know what was the matter, I asked a man.

Emphasis thwarted by *and:* They began their perilous journey, and they had four horses.

Better [emphasizing *perilous journey*]: With four horses they began their perilous journey. [A prepositional phrase replaces a clause.]

Better [emphasizing *having the horses*]: When they began their perilous journey, they had four horses. [A subordinate clause replaces a main clause.]

Note 1.—Predication may sometimes be reduced without changing a main clause to a subordinate clause, a participial or prepositional phrase, or an adjective or adverb. In such instances reduced predication normally (a) telescopes statements, (b) employs a compound predicate, or (c) uses apposition to define or explain informally.

Statements to be telescoped: There is a dining room in the building, and that is how we can get hot lunches.

Better: A dining room in the building enables us to get hot lunches.

Compound predicate to be employed: Ice blocks the highways for months. During the same period it prevents the use of the lake.

Better: For months ice blocks the highways and prevents the use of the lake.

Apposition to be used [informal definition]: One of the processes is dubbing. This is the addition of sound after the picture has been taken.

Better: One of the processes is dubbing, the addition of sound after the picture has been taken.

Apposition to be used [informal explanation]: Excavating is the first operation in paving a street. It is done by means of a steam shovel.

Better: Excavating, the first operation in paving a street, is done by means of a steam shovel.

Apposition to be used [informal identification]: Kleinberg sits at the end of the table. He is the president of the company.

Better: Kleinberg, the president of the company, sits at the end of the table.

Note 2.—Avoid upside-down subordination. Since a minor idea should not be made grammatically equal to a main idea, it of course should not be made superior.

Faulty: An old man used to work for us, who died yesterday.
Better: An old man who used to work for us died yesterday.

Faulty: He has a manner which makes me angry.
Better: His manner makes me angry.

Faulty: The fire spread to the third story, when the house was doomed.
Better: When the fire spread to the third story, the house was doomed.

Faulty: Their exhibit was the best, taking the prize.
Better: Their exhibit, being the best, took the prize. [Or, making the main idea at least coordinate] Their exhibit was the best, and took the prize.

Note 3.—Do not use *and* or *but* in attaching a phrase or a subordinate clause to a superior element. The coordinating conjunction, besides being unnecessary, thwarts subordination.

Wrong: Gerald went to bed, and leaving the work unfinished.
Right: Gerald went to bed, leaving the work unfinished.

Wrong: This is an important problem, and which we shall not find easy to solve.
Right: This is a problem which is important and which we shall not find easy to solve. [Or] This is an important problem, which we shall not find easy to solve.

Wrong: Their chief opponent was Winter, a shrewd politician, but who is now less popular than he was.
Right: Their chief opponent was Winter, a shrewd politician, who is now less popular than he was.

Exercise

1. Mother cuts the newly baked pie. She cuts it into six pieces. They are equal in size.
2. Squirrels may always be found around the piñon trees and they gather the nuts for a food supply.
3. It is an old delusion and which never fails to fool most of us.
4. The cable breaks and the elevator starts to drop, when the safety device operates at once to prevent an accident.
5. The law does not allow the pilot to take off yet and he must first see that the runways are clear and he must make sure that no other planes are approaching the field.

B. EMPHASIS THROUGH SEPARATION

Of two related ideas each may be important enough to have a sentence to itself.

Unemphatic: Motorists can save expense if they do not spend their nights in hotels, and many of them sleep in auto courts.

Better: Motorists can save expense if they do not spend their nights in hotels. Many of them sleep in auto courts.

Unemphatic: Mosher leaped to the stage and shouted defiantly, "I will never consent to that!" and he looked as if he meant what he said. [Direct discourse is more forceful if separated from explanatory phrases, particularly from those which follow.]

Better: Mosher leaped to the stage and shouted his defiance. "I will never consent to that!" And he looked as if he meant what he said.

Of two related ideas each gains importance through equal predication with the other, and still more through separate predication from the other.

Second idea unemphatic: My family dislikes the McCombs heartily, having nothing to do with them. [The second idea is expressed in a subordinate phrase.]

Second idea fairly emphatic: My family dislikes the McCombs heartily and has nothing to do with them. [The second idea is joined with the first in a compound predicate.]

Second idea more emphatic: My family dislikes the McCombs heartily, and it will have nothing to do with them. [The second idea forms an independent statement, but remains in the same sentence with the first.]

Second idea more emphatic still: My family dislikes the McCombs heartily. It will have nothing to do with them. [The second idea stands in a sentence to itself.]

Note.—Usually subordination (see **A**) is employed when statements are being combined. In some instances, however, it is employed when statements are being separated.

Straggling and unemphatic: We lived in Santa Fé for ten years, and then my father died, so we moved to El Paso, Texas. [There are three ideas: (1) ten years elapse; (2) a man dies; (3) a family moves.]

Better [emphasizing ideas 2 and 3]: After we had lived in Santa Fé for ten years, my father died. We then moved to El Paso, Texas.

Better [emphasizing ideas 1 and 3]: We lived in Santa Fé for ten years. Upon the death of my father, the family moved to El Paso, Texas.

Exercise

1. He bought the lots and held them while the neighborhood built up, and the result was that he became a rich man.
2. War is the worst affliction a people can suffer, and we must take the utmost pains to avoid it.
3. The first few cartoons were hard to make, but when he had hi series fairly started, his troubles ended, and ideas for new cartoon

came to him unsought, and subscribers even sent in suggestions as to what they would like.

4. There were various factions, but the king's, the queen's, and Cardinal Richelieu's were the most powerful, and D'Artagnan was one of the king's musketeers, but nevertheless he rendered great service to the queen, and Richelieu tried to bribe him with a lieutenancy but he refused it.
5. We have received your complaint and assure you that the articles were in good condition when they were shipped, but we shall replace them with sound merchandise and ourselves collect from the carriers, and we trust this solution will be satisfactory to you.

C. EMPHASIS THROUGH POSITION

(*Beginning and End*)

To make a sentence forceful, a writer or speaker should reserve the emphatic positions for important words or ideas. The emphatic positions are the beginning and the end—especially the end.*

Weak: I demand the release of the prisoners in the first place.

Ending made emphatic: In the first place, I demand the release of the prisoners.

Beginning and ending made emphatic: I demand, in the first place, the release of the prisoners. ["Tucking in" unimportant modifiers gives the sentence a maximum of emphasis.]

Weak: He is a man whom I have broken bread with often. [The last two words—a hanging preposition and an adverb—both lack force.]

More emphatic: He is a man with whom I have often broken bread.

Weak: I did not recognize the president in the crowd. It was hardly possible to recognize anyone in the crowd. [The ending *in the crowd* becomes more noticeably weak through repetition.]

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* The end of a subdivision, such as a clause, is also relatively emphatic.

More emphatic: I did not recognize the president. It was hardly possible, in the crowd, to recognize anyone.

Exercise

1. You are much at fault, if I may venture to say so.
2. Popular enthusiasm has been tremendous, it seems.
3. It is a tendency which you have not seen the end of perhaps.
4. The man is a coward who will not back such a cause, disregarding party politics.
5. The imports have declined to some extent this year, according to reports.

D. EMPHASIS THROUGH ORDER OF PARTS

(*Climax, Periodic Sentence*)

Emphasis is stronger when it is cumulative. Hence a series of elements or sentences noticeably different in strength should normally employ the order of climax. Hence also a single sentence meant to have emphasis may be periodic; that is, it may delay until the end the completion of the main thought.*

Elements arranged in an anticlimax: Gower put into his pocket five hundred dollars, a handkerchief, and a cigarette case.

Better: Gower put into his pocket a handkerchief, a cigarette case, and five hundred dollars.

Sentences arranged in an anticlimax: We are threatened with disaster. Our difficulties are far greater than they were last season.

Better: Our difficulties are far greater than they were last season. In fact we now are threatened with disaster.

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* Warning: The periodic sentence should not be overused. Employed now and then, it is desirable and effective. Employed through long passages, it makes writing stiff and mannered.

Loose sentence [unemphatic]: I saw two men fight a duel, many years ago, on a moonlit summer night, in a little village in northern France. [The main idea is completed at once. Subordinate matter is tacked on afterward.]

Periodic sentence [emphatic]: Many years ago, on a moonlit summer night, in a little village in northern France, I saw two men fight a duel.

Loose sentence: He takes the dealer's word then and there, without stopping to ask questions, and he ought to know better. [Not only is the main idea completed too soon, but other matter is not properly subordinated.]

Periodic sentence: Though he ought to know better, he then and there, without stopping to ask questions, takes the dealer's word.

Exercise

1. Hawkins was convulsed, Southby amused.
2. The chapel of William Tell stands by the soft, blue waters of Lake Lucerne.
3. He gave a terrible cry in his desperation, his alarm, his surprise.
4. The company has systematically plundered the public, rendered inefficient service, and evaded most of its taxes.
5. There is a little one-room cabin tucked away in a "draw" of the North Dakota Bad Lands, and it is forty miles from a railroad.

E. EMPHASIS THROUGH STRUCTURE OF PARTS

(*Active Voice, Parallelism*)

To be forceful, a grammatical construction should employ the strong active rather than the weak passive voice. Also it should take the same form as a preceding construction to set off the two ideas, one against the other, as similar or opposite in thought.

Passive voice [weak]: Your gift is appreciated by me.

Active voice [better]: I appreciate your gift.

Passive voice: The train was seen speeding toward them. [The passive voice is especially objectionable when by failing to indicate the agent of the verb it unnecessarily mystifies the reader.]

Active voice: They saw the train speeding toward them.

Weak and complicated: From the East a man who lives in the West can learn a great deal, and an Easterner ought to be able to understand the West.

Balanced structure: A Westerner can learn much from the East, and an Easterner needs to understand the West.

Weak and straggling: This paper, like many others, has some bad features, but in other ways it is good. The news articles are better than the editorials, which are feeble.

Better: The paper is in some respects poor, in other respects good. The editorials are feeble, the news articles impressive. [Each sentence is now balanced within itself, and the two sentences balance each other. The change in the order of items in the second sentence is for the sake of the larger parallelism; both sentences now name a poor feature first, a good feature afterward.]

Exercise

1. After his lunch had been eaten, Robert retired to his cabin. A great deal of fun was had by the few who were able to stay on the deck.
2. He works very hard to make himself efficient, and also with the idea of attaining the goodwill of his employer.
3. With cold water you can remove grease from a cloth, but the result will be different if hot water is used.
4. At the age of twenty-one Bennett went to London, where great ability as an artist was soon shown by him. After ten years his greatest success was achieved.
5. By walking too fast for the first half hour a person wears himself out at once. But he can go till nightfall if he begins moderately.

F. EMPHASIS THROUGH REPETITION*

The simplest and most natural way to emphasize a word or an idea is to repeat it. But a word or idea that is repeated must, of course, be important enough to deserve emphasis.

Unemphatic: He works a great deal, but he seems never to get anywhere.
Emphatic: Work, work, work, all he does is work, and still he seems never to get anywhere.

Unemphatic: How did the general meet this new menace? He withdrew before it!
Emphatic: How did the general meet this new menace? He withdrew! He retreated! He ran away!

Weak: We hope that this shipment will reach you in good condition, and that you will favor us with other orders in the future, which will be given prompt and courteous attention.
Emphatic: We hope that this shipment will reach you in good condition. We believe that the quality of our goods will induce you to send us a second order. We assure you that such an order will receive prompt and courteous attention. [Here the repetition is not of a word or idea, but of an entire grammatical structure.** Note the resolute march of the expressions *We hope, We believe, We assure.*]

Note.—Unless used carelessly or frequently, the repetition of words, phrases, or ideas in threes is an effective rhetorical device. See the emphatic forms of the three preceding examples.

Exercise

1. It rains. Continually I hear the water dripping.
2. The convict kept waiting for a pardon.

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* For ungrammatical repetition see **16A.** For impairing style through repetition of sounds or forms see **45C.**

** Further emphasis is obtained through separation, through parallelism, and through the consistent use of the active voice.

3. He has attempted to ride his motor cycle up that steep slope a large number of times, but he never succeeds.
4. We shall cross vast deserts. High mountains wait to be climbed, along with the fording of swift rivers.
5. Boland, having asked for a dime's worth, came back from the Filipino's stall with bananas in his clothes everywhere.

G. EMPHASIS THROUGH CONCRETENESS

Abstract or general terms appeal to the understanding alone. Concrete or specific terms appeal to the feelings.

No details, no appeal to the senses: I liked to watch the servant girl as she moved about the kitchen, preparing our morning repast.

Specific: I liked to watch Norah as she fried our crisp breakfast bacon and browned our buckwheat cakes.

Abstract, hard to grasp, apparently unrelated to actual life: Honesty is not objective, but subjective. [Here we may let the generalizing statement stand. But we should (a) explain it in concrete terms or (b) illustrate it.]

Restated concretely: Honesty is not objective, but subjective. It consists, not in paying hard cash for one's meat or overcoat, but in having the purpose to do right without thought of the policeman's club or the neighbors' tongues.

Followed by an example: Honesty is not objective, but subjective. Jean Valjean stole a loaf of bread to save children from starving. The deed, judged externally by the law of the time, brands him as criminal; but judged by inner motives, marks him as unselfish and therefore as honest.

Exercise

1. A man came down the road in a vehicle.
2. The old negro woman wore a costume of extraordinary colors.

3. In the spring nature shows in various ways that life is being renewed.
4. She could tell from the sounds in the next room that a meal was being prepared.
5. Selfishness may be productive of diminished rather than increased satisfaction.

EXERCISE

Make the changes necessary to give proper force to elements or ideas.

1. That was why the voice was so anxious that Maizie heard.
2. The men of the Renaissance were artistic, but cruelty was often shown by them.
3. The stable boy ran a nail in his foot and contracted lockjaw, death being the result.
4. My first expense is for house rent and food. House rent and food take half of my income.
5. He set no more traps when a fox gnawed off its leg when he caught it.
6. Gladstone chewed every bite of his food thirty-two times, once for each tooth, as you may have heard.
7. She looks at the people in the boxes. She looks at them through her opera glasses.
8. The child looks famished and wears rather shabby clothes.
9. The rice now filled all the dishes in the kitchen because it kept swelling as I cooked it.
10. An aerial bomb is not so destructive as a naval shell, and the reason is that a bomb is dropped from above and its only acceleration is the force of gravity and it does not penetrate resistant bodies but explodes outside and one unit of TNT within an object is known to do more damage than four units against the object.

Variety in Sentence Structure*

49. Except when there is special reason to adhere to one pattern, give variety to the structure of sentences. In particular,

- **A. Vary the length**
- **B. Vary the beginnings**
- **C. Avoid a series of similar compound sentences**
- **D. Change at times from loose to periodic or balanced structure**
- **E. Insert an occasional question or bit of quoted discourse**
- **F. Take care not to overuse participial constructions, adjectives, or adverbs.**

A. VARYING THE LENGTH

Monotonous series of choppy sentences: Walter came up the path. He was carrying Betty in his arms. She was wet from head to toe. Damp curls clung to her face. Water dripped from her clothes. One hand hung over Walter's arm. The other held a live duckling. She had saved the little duck from drowning. This was Betty's first day in the country.

Better: Walter came up the path carrying Betty in his arms—little Betty who was spending her first day in the country. She was wet from head to toe; damp curls clung to her face, and water dripped from her clothes. In one hand she held a live duckling. She had jumped into the pond and saved the little duck from drowning.

B. VARYING THE BEGINNINGS

Too many sentences beginning directly with the subject: The way is circuitous. A sharp turn leads round a rocky point. The road drops suddenly into a little valley. A grove lies straight ahead, with a roof appearing through the leaves. We advance toward this building. We now see that it is a cottage. An old-fashioned well is near the door.

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* For avoiding a needless repetition of words see **16B.** For attaining a smooth and natural style see **45.**

Better: Presently, on the circuitous way, a sharp turn leads round a rocky point. Dropping suddenly into a little valley, the road runs straight to a grove through the leaves of which a roof appears. As we advance we can see that the building is a cottage. Near the door is an old-fashioned well. [The first sentence now begins with an adverb, the second with a participle, the third with a subordinate clause, and, the fourth with a prepositional phrase.]

C. AVOIDING A SERIES OF LIKE COMPOUND SENTENCES*

Seesaw effect: Ring was a sheep dog, and he tended the flock with his master. One day there came a deep snow, and the flock did not return. They found the herder frozen stiff, and the dog stood shivering beside him.

Better: Ring was a sheep dog, and tended the flock with his master. One day there came a deep snow. When the flock failed to return, the men, uneasy, began a search. They found the herder frozen stiff, with the dog shivering beside him.

D. USING PERIODIC OR BALANCED STRUCTURE FOR RELIEF

The main thought completed in too many sentences before the sentence ends: An apartment house is an uncertainty, the same as a grab bag. You may find that you have good neighbors in the people who live in it, as I need scarcely say. But disagreeable people may live there, on the other hand, the chances being that they do. You simply can't know what you will draw when you go to live in an apartment house, any more than you can foresee what luck you will have when you thrust your hand into a grab bag.

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* For fuller treatment of the *and* sentence see **3.**

Better: An apartment house, like a grab bag, is an uncertainty. In the people who live in it, I need scarcely say, you may find that you have good neighbors or that you have disagreeable ones. When you take quarters in an apartment house, as when you thrust your hand into a grab bag, you simply can't foresee what you will draw. [Constructions are more often balanced, one against another, and thought is more often suspended until the end of the sentence is reached.]

E. ASKING QUESTIONS OR QUOTING CONVERSATION

Somewhat flat: They asked me the road to Camden. I did not know. I told them to ask Thurber, who knew the country well.

Better: They asked me the road to Camden. The road to Camden? How should I know? "Ask Thurber," I advised; "he knows this country well."

F. AVOIDING AN OVERLOAD OF PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTIONS, ADJECTIVES, OR ADVERBS

Mechanical use of participles: Following a good many modern trends, medicine here and there has become socialized. Banding together into groups, doctors combat ill health, not singly, but collectively. Working at their various specialties, they supply every medical need of their patients. [Here the opening participle is overworked. Participles rightly used give swiftness and animation to style.]

Better: In accordance with many modern trends medicine here and there has become socialized. Doctors band together in groups to combat ill health, not singly, but collectively. Because their specialties are various they can supply every medical need of their patients.

Adjective and adverb "twosomes": Darting across the gray, leaden sky, the quick, jagged lightning flashed brilliantly and incessantly. Then suddenly, furiously across the window swept the streaming, blinding rain.

Better: Darting across the leaden sky, the lightning flashed incessantly. Then suddenly across the window streamed the rain.

Exercise

Recast the following sentences to get rid of monotony, mannerisms, and flat constructions.

1. The beans are harvested about the middle of September. The plants turn color at the roots at this time. The beans turn white. These are signs that the harvesting should begin. The beans are cut by a bean-cutter. It takes two rows at a time.
2. This is oil country, as you can see by the forest of oil derricks. We drill more wells than are needed, thus wasting a great deal of money. This is caused by multiple ownership, with everybody eager to drain the earth first.
3. They were calling for volunteers. They asked whether I would go. I said that I would.
4. I have a great-aunt and her house is filled with old furnishings. There is a cane-bottomed chair and a spinning wheel stands in front of it. I still visit the place often and I like to examine the old albums and pictures.
5. Smiling broadly and happily, and bowing proudly and continually, the old, triumphant statesman rode up the gay, bannered street.

STUDY HABITS

Use of a Library

50. Learn how to make general use of a library. Learn also how to find authoritative information and trained opinion on a given topic.

THE PERIODICALS IN YOUR COLLEGE LIBRARY

The current periodicals in your college library are sure to be kept where you can get at them without trouble, though you may not take them from the building.

Back files of periodicals are usually kept in closed stacks, and are catalogued differently in different colleges. When the need arises you should have an attendant explain the system employed in your college.

THE BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, ETC., IN YOUR COLLEGE LIBRARY

The books, pamphlets, etc., in your college library fall into two classes—general works and reference works.

If the college is a large one, general works are likely to be kept in closed stacks. To obtain the use of a general work you must, by consulting the card catalogue, make sure that the library has it (see **A**) and must fill out a call slip for it (see **B**).*

The reference works are kept in the reference room. Most of them stand on open shelves; you may have access to the others through the help of an attendant. (For instructions in using them see **C**.)

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* If a book is reserved for the use of a class you may consult it in the collateral room, but not (ordinarily) take it from the building.

A. CONSULTING THE CARD CATALOGUE

To learn whether the library contains a given book, look in the alphabetically arranged card catalogue under

1. the name of the author or editor (the surname is printed first), or
2. the title of the book (an initial *a*, *an*, or *the* is disregarded).

Perhaps you do not know the names of authors or volumes dealing with a subject you wish to investigate. Try looking in the card catalogue under the subject itself.* There, if you are fortunate, you will find authors and volumes listed. The last card under the subject may name related subject headings for you to consult.** Often the analysis of contents on a card devoted to an individual volume will suggest still further headings.

B. MAKING OUT A CALL SLIP

To take a volume from the library, find the card for it in the card catalogue and copy on the call slip

1. the call number (usually printed in the upper left corner),
2. the name of the author or editor,
3. the title of the book,
4. the volume number (if the book is one of a series).

The attendant at the loan desk will then procure the volume for you.

C. CONSULTING REFERENCE WORKS

Some reference works, such as dictionaries and yearbooks, supply information direct. Some list sources of information.* Encyclopedias, in limited degree, do both. Hence an encyclopedia is often the best place to begin your investigation of a subject.**

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* Some libraries do not have a subject catalogue; most do.

** Thus the last card under *Tariff* may tell you to see also *Commerce*, *Economics*, *Reciprocity*, and *Taxation*.

The other reference works are so numerous that you may have difficulty finding those helpful to your particular need. If so, ask an attendant for suggestions or consult Isadore G. Mudge's *Guide to Reference Books*. For ordinary purposes the following works suffice:

DICTIONARIES

Webster's New International Dictionary (Second Edition)
New Century Dictionary
New Standard Dictionary
Murray's New English Dictionary. Also called the *Oxford Dictionary*. (Very thorough, illustrating each word with numerous quotations to show historical development)

WORKS SUPPLEMENTARY TO DICTIONARIES

Crabb's English Synonyms
Fernald's *English Synonyms and Antonyms*
Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*
Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations*

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Encyclopaedia Britannica (Fourteenth Edition)
New International Encyclopedia
Encyclopedia Americana
Columbia Encyclopedia

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* A book or other source thus listed may or may not be owned by the library, and may or may not be at once available. In any case you know that it exists somewhere. If your need for it is great or your study is meant to be exhaustive, you may have to obtain it from some other library.

** As a rule the main article on a subject is only a part of what the encyclopedia offers you. To find further material consult the index volume.

Century Dictionary of Proper Names (Volume XI of the original *Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia*)
Dictionary of National Biography (British men and women)
Dictionary of American Biography

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ON LIVING PERSONS

National Cyclopedia of American Biography
Who's Who
Who's Who in America
Wer ist's?
Qui êtes-Vous?
Kunitz's *Living Authors*
Kunitz's *Authors, Today and Yesterday*

INDEXES TO PUBLISHED BOOKS

United States Catalog
Cumulative Book Index
A(merican) *L*(ibrary) *A*(ssociation) *Booklist*
A(merican) *L*(ibrary) *A*(ssociation) *Catalog*
Book Review Digest

INDEXES TO PERIODICALS

Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature
International Index to Periodicals
Annual Magazine Subject Index
New York Times Index
(London) *Times Official Index*
Agricultural Index
Art Index
Dramatic Index
Education Index
Engineering Index
Index to Legal Periodicals
Industrial Arts Index

Public Affairs Information Service
Psychological Index

MISCELLANEOUS REFERENCE WORKS

World Almanac
Whitaker's *Almanac*
Swanton's *Guide to United States Government Publications*
U. S. Department of Agriculture *Year Book*
U. S. Department of Commerce *Year Book*
American Year Book
Statesman's Year Book
Political Handbook of the World
Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences
University Debaters' Annual
Intercollegiate Debates
The [Debater's] *Handbook Series*
New Larned History for Ready Reference
Cambridge Ancient History
Cambridge Medieval History
Cambridge Modern History
Lippincott's New Gazetteer
Rand, McNally's Commercial Atlas
Nature Library
Gayley's *Classic Myths in English Literature and Art*
Gray's *Mythology of All Races*
Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities
Hastings' *Dictionary of the Bible*
Hastings' *Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics*
Catholic Encyclopedia
New Jewish Encyclopedia
The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge
Reinach's *Apollo: an Illustrated Manual of the History of Art*
Grove's *Dictionary of Music and Musicians*

Modern Humanities Research Association' (annual bibliography of English language and literature)
Harvey's *Oxford Companion to English Literature*
Cambridge History of English Literature
Cambridge History of American Literature

D. FINDING THE BEST AUTHORITIES ON A SUBJECT

As a freshman you will rarely have occasion to examine *all* the books and articles on a subject. You will need to acquaint yourself with only a few of the best. How are you to find your way to this select list?

Seek first the workaday bibliographies which have already been compiled on the general subject.* Look for them in the most natural and convenient places—in your textbook, in any syllabus used in your course, in any well-known works in the field, and at the end of the discussion in an encyclopedia. Perhaps the subject catalogue of the library will supply additional titles.

The books thus learned of may name further books. Look at the back of the volume for a general bibliography, at the close of chapters for special bibliographies, and in the footnotes for individual references.

To trace current or very recent publications on the subject examine the *Cumulative Book Index*, the *Book Review Digest*, and the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*.

Probably by this time the number of sources you know of is ample. If not, consult such other reference works listed in **C** as seem pertinent to your study.

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* Perhaps none will have been compiled on your particular topic. As a rule you must get your bearings in a somewhat broad domain of knowledge before narrowing and intensifying your objective.

But you have not merely to find sources. You have to decide which are authoritative.

Those listed—when not too many are listed—in texts, syllabuses, encyclopedias, etc., are as a rule carefully chosen. Those listed in guides and indexes may represent comprehensiveness rather than standards. If alert, you may glean still further evidence as to the reliability of a source. In especial watch for clues and apply tests as follows:

1. What are the position and cultural or professional backgrounds of the author? (For clues see the title page, the date and place sometimes given at the end of the preface, *Who's Who in America*, the works listed under the author's name in the *United States Catalog.*)
2. What opinion do other writers on the subject express or imply regarding the work or the author? (Discount any opinion which bears evidence of bias.)
3. Does the work itself show scholarly research and care? (Does it contain footnotes and bibliography? Does the preface reveal wide and thoughtful investigation? Does the author merely make statements, or does he support them? Does he suppress evidence? Does he admit the force of adverse evidence? Is he open-minded, or is he prejudiced or uninformed? Is he writing for the sake of the truth, or for the sake of a theory, of cheap popularity, or of partisan ends?)
4. Is the work recent? * (Some kinds of information never become obsolete. Some age rapidly. Which kind does this work contain? Guard against assuming that

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* If the date of a volume is not given on the title page, look on the copyright page or at the end of the preface. The year given on the copyright page is that of first publication.

the more recent of two books is necessarily the more authoritative.)

Not mysterious processes, therefore, but simple industry and good sense, lead you to the books and articles on a subject and tell you which to trust most.

Exercise

1. From the card catalogue learn the name and dates of the author of *The Education of Henry Adams.*
2. From the card catalogue get the titles of three books written on religious subjects within the past decade.
3. What subject heads cognate to *Pottery* does the card catalogue contain?
4. By consulting the *United States Catalog*, the *Book Review Digest*, and *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* find the earliest publication, the latest publication, and three other publications of your favorite living author.
5. Find the names of two books, two plays, and two articles dealing with Mary Queen of Scots which have appeared within the past twenty years.
6. Find the maiden name of the wife of your college president.
7. Who was Parson Adams?
8. How many volumes are contained in each of the first four encyclopedias listed in Section C of this article?
9. From the index volume of an encyclopedia list the topics discussed under the heading "Telephone." In how many volumes would you have to look in order to read all those discussions?
10. List six authoritative books or articles on American architecture, naming the authors, giving the dates, and (for the articles) identifying the periodicals.
11. What are the chief industries of Ohio?
12. What was the amount of each winning player's share in the world series in baseball four years ago? each losing player's share?

13. By what amount were the gross receipts of the postal department three years ago greater (or less) than those for the year preceding?
14. Call to mind an important political or governmental action of last year. Point out the exact place or places in (a) a periodical and (b) a yearbook where information regarding this action may be obtained.
15. Find a person or topic inadequately represented in your college library. Prepare a list of the materials necessary to make the representation adequate.

Note-Taking, Paraphrasing, Summarizing, Précis Writing, and Reading Habits in General

51. Take notes with discrimination, and be able to paraphrase or summarize intelligently what you hear or read.

A. HOW TO TAKE NOTES

To take effective notes write down in rough outline form the main points of an article or lecture together with enough details to enable you to reconstruct the argument (roughly but accurately) without further reference to the original.

Use cards (3 by 5 inches or larger) or a notebook. Begin each new topic on a separate card or page, so that your material can be rearranged or reorganized if necessary. Number the sheets in the order in which you write them. Copy verbatim within quotation marks particularly stimulating remarks or illustrations. Give the quoted passage a label which will recall the whole instantly to your mind. Note below it your own comments. Example:

Threatened Punishment and Truthfulness

Russell, Bertrand : *Education and the Good Life*, page 162. "If you say to a boy, 'Do that again and I'll murder you'; and he does it again, then you must murder him. If you don't he will lose all respect for you."

——— Question: Is an exception never justifiable?

Note all details connected with quoted matter (author's ıame, book title, page reference, etc.) so clearly and completely hat the passage is available for use in an article or bibiography vithout your going back to the original. Avoid making yourself lo the same work twice over.

In taking notes on a lecture you should record headings and lates. Omit preliminaries and details; try to give the gist of vhat is said. Leave yourself space to go back and fill in if your ecturer backtracks.

B. HOW TO PARAPHRASE

To paraphrase a passage give its complete meaning in your ɔwn words.

1. Put into simple language of your own all words or passages that are obscure. Use the original author's words when they are wholly simple and clear; do not strain for synonyms unnecessarily.
2. Do not add ideas that are not stated or implied in the original.
3. Keep the general tone and manner of the original when you can do so without loss of clearness or naturalness.
4. Use your best English. Make every word count.

You resort to paraphrase to condense or expand a passage, or to make clear a passage that is technical, or abstract, or in some other way obscure. You use it also in adapting several different sources to your own purpose.

In your writing you should ordinarily try to express in your natural language the ideas you take from other sources. The style of an encyclopedia, for example, is not your own natural style. You should *weave in* the ideas you borrow, so that they go along naturally, in meaning and tone, with what you have to say.

> Excessively formal: The height of lunar mountains cannot be stated with the same definiteness that we can achieve in assigning heights to our terrestrial mountains, because there is no fixed sea level on the moon to which elevations can be referred. The only determination that can be made on the moon is that of the height above some neighboring hollow crater or plain.
>
> Natural: We are unable to measure the mountains on the moon as accurately as we can those on the earth because the moon has no fixed sea level from which to begin. Mountains on the moon can be measured only in terms of the number of feet they rise above some neighboring plain or crater.

C. HOW TO SUMMARIZE

To summarize a passage give the main points only, omitting details and non-vital matter. The essential meaning of a paragraph may usually be condensed to a single sentence. The topic sentence (if there is one) of the paragraph will usually give you the subject of your summarizing sentence, and the latter part of the paragraph will usually give you the predicate. Sometimes the essential meaning must be pulled out of the paragraph. here and there, bit by bit.

Example of a Paragraph Reduced to a Summarizing Sentence

NEW STEELS FOR NEW USES

Time was, not so long ago, when steel was just steel. You bought one kind of steel for every purpose. In 1911 only 11 kinds of steel were used in making automobiles; today 83 kinds are so used. There is a particular advantage in each kind. Some alloys give greater strength for equal weight and bulk. Others will not corrode on exposure to acids or hot gases. Some alloys show no wear after long use. Others cut freely under tools and so can be more easily stamped into elaborate shapes. The operator knows just what use each batch of steel is intended for. "This batch is for brake drums on automobiles," said an operator to me. "Next is a batch for rifle barrels, quite different steel. After that a couple of hundred tons of screw stock—steel that's easy to work in automatic machines. Special? Everything's special now."

SUMMARIZING SENTENCE

Whereas all steel used to be alike, today each batch is prepared for a specific purpose.

Summarizing puts our thinking to a test. It shows us how other men have organized good paragraphs; it trains us to build good paragraphs of our own. When we can compress the thought of several pages into a few sentences, using our own words, we have taken a long step in the direction of systematic thinking.

D. HOW TO WRITE A PRÉCIS

To write a précis of a passage summarize each paragraph and unite the resulting sentences in an orderly and continuous whole. A précis is a cutdown substitute for the original passage.

It should be intelligible to persons who have not seen the original.*

1. Read the material several times. Grasp the central idea.
2. Express the central idea briefly in your own language, making every word count. Try to reduce the thought of each paragraph to a single sentence.
3. Tie these summarizing sentences together (using parallel structure, transition phrases, or whatever is necessary) until they give the *connected thought* of the original passage.

Example: Extended Passage and Précis

OUR WASTEFUL COUNTY GOVERNMENTS

Just as another new hat is woman's greatest extravagance so are county governments the greatest waste in our national economy. In many states two thirds of all governmental expense goes for the maintenance of local units (county and city). Much of this expense is waste because of duplication or overlapping of functions.

County boundaries today are as antiquated as the horse-and-buggy traffic that men used when counties were first laid out. These boundaries were designed to meet pioneer conditions of distance and slow transportation. In an age when a taxpayer can cross the state in his car in less time than it took his grandfather to drive to the county seat, the old county lines are ridiculous. They are an absurd vestige of slower transportation, a jigsaw puzzle of tiny counties, each working independently, each paying its own staff, conducting its own elections, providing its own buildings, but not having enough work to keep its employees busy. The result is that often the expense of a small county government is the same as the expense of maintaining another county many times its size. In Mississippi, for example, the combined expenditure of four small counties is just four times as great as the expenditure of the single large county of Sunflower, whose area is the same as that of the small counties together.

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* The word *précis* is pronounced *pray-see.* Most persons use the words *summarizing* and *précis writing* as synonyms. The word *summary* is used oftenest in treating a paragraph or a short passage; the word *précis* is used oftenest in treating a longer passage where the summarizing sentences must be closely woven together.

In still another way counties are a waste. Many cities have grown larger than the counties to which they originally belonged. Many hold jurisdiction over the same area as their counties. Services and offices are almost exactly duplicated, until the idea of a pyramidal government from federal down through state, county, and city organizations becomes a farce.

Unequal population, small size, and the overlapping of city and county are not the only causes of waste. Even in the large units there is extravagance because the average county has no recognized head. No one person is responsible for the honest, efficient conduct of county officials. As a result there is duplication on one hand and neglect on the other. It is often impossible for citizens to fix responsibility for either good work or bad. In most counties a large group of officials—district attorney, sheriff, constable, and grand jury—have law enforcing functions which so criss-cross that dodging responsibility ("passing the buck," it is familiarly called) is almost inevitable. The citizens become accustomed to seeing crime go unpunished and wonder what sort of value they are receiving for their lavish taxes.

SUMMARIZING SENTENCES

County governments are one of our greatest national extravagances.

Duplication exists among counties because the areas are small, with county seats closer together than is necessary under present facilities for transportation.

Cities and counties duplicate each other's activities because cities often grow to overspread counties in size and population.

Having no recognized head responsible for the whole unit, county officials often duplicate each other's activities.

In joining the summarizing sentences use parallel structure, transition phrases, or whatever is necessary to give the *connected thought* of the original passage. The final result should be a *continuous running summary.*

PRÉCIS

County governments are one of our greatest national extravagances because of wasteful duplication of effort. Counties duplicate each other's activities because they are small and because county seats are closer together than is necessary under present facilities for transportation. Counties often duplicate city administrative functions because cities have grown to rival counties in size and population. A county government often duplicates activities within its own departments because the county has no recognized head responsible for the whole unit.

E. READING HABITS IN GENERAL

> "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed,
> and some few to be chewed and digested."
>
> —Francis Bacon, *Of Studies*

Learn to do effectively the kind of reading that requires creative activity on your part—the kind of reading in which you *digest* or *assimilate* the other man's ideas.

Make use of the table of contents of books. Keep in mind the large goals of each chapter as you read; do not become so immersed in details that you "cannot see the forest for the trees." Pause for vistas and over-views. Relate what is said to your own experiences.

Try to anticipate the outcome of each chapter. Make a mental outline of the writer's main points (if the table of contents does not supply one ready-made). Then you will know the goal of each division, know when you have made progress toward it, and know when you have reached it.

How to Write a Term Paper

In Article **50** you are instructed how to find material in a library. In **51** you are instructed how to take notes. In **54** you are instructed regarding matters of usage in the manuscript of ordinary themes. You must now learn how to write a term (or research) paper which shall present an informed survey of a topic.*

52. Choose a topic or problem which is limited enough for you to cover it satisfactorily. Study what the best authorities you can find have learned and believed about it. Weigh varying opinions one against another, and after arriving at the best composite interpretation you can, prepare a paper which shall have scholarly form and organization, shall give credit for all borrowed ideas, and shall be clear, discriminating, and adequate.

A. LIMITING THE TOPIC

A term paper usually comprises from twelve or fifteen to thirty or thirty-five pages. Though it need not (except in advanced or graduate work) be exhaustive or add to human knowledge, it should leave no important phase of the subject untouched. Hence the subject should not be too broad.

You may secure a limited topic by either of two methods. (1) You may search out a topic which itself is narrow. (2) You may select a broad topic, but approach it in a particular way or from a special point of view.* The second method is often the more interesting and profitable.

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* Such papers are written (though not necessarily in the freshman year) in nearly all departments of a college. Any changes from the forms here prescribed are minor.

B. STUDYING THE SOURCES

A term paper is not to be spun out of your own head. It is not to be taken slavishly from a single source. It is to be a product (1) of your examination and comparison of a number of sources (from three or four to fifteen or twenty) and (2) of your independent thinking on the evidence, the theories, and the issues.

In limiting your subject you have oriented yourself to it; that is, you have learned what it involves, what its relation is to other subjects, and what precise task you have set yourself. In obtaining this preliminary view you have probably had the help of ideas gathered from class lectures, your textbook, and an encyclopedia.

Your next step is to find (1) what the best authorities are, and (2) whether the library has copies of them.** For the method of finding the best authorities see Article **50D**. For discovering the resources of the library consult the card catalogue (see **50A**).

Once you have access to the sources, your temptation will be to read many things not strictly germane to your subject. Overcome this temptation by (1) bearing your exact topic in mind, (2) using tables of contents, indexes, and summaries in the first and last paragraphs of chapters to find pertinent material, and (3) skipping unrelated matter as you read.

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* For example, the topic "Lenin" is broad. Adequate treatment of it would require thorough investigation, not only of Lenin's entire character and career, but also of such matters as Czarist Russia, the issues of the World War, and the theory and soundness of the Bolshevist system. Lenin, however, may be studied, like any other person, with regard to a particular matter; in the specimen term paper in section **E** of this article he is studied with regard to a theory as to the way men become leaders.

** If necessary sources are not available, you must change your topic.

Take notes in such form that you may shift and organize them later. A good plan is to use 3x5 cards and to confine each card to a single entry or at least a single idea. If you have a jumble of topics on your cards, you will experience trouble in giving your material its final arrangement.*

C. INDICATING THE SOURCES

Because a term paper represents research it draws much of its material from outside sources. It should accurately identify these sources and distinguish between borrowed material and that which the writer's own judgment supplies.

At the end of the paper, provide an alphabetical bibliography of all the sources from which material in the paper is derived.** If the sources include both books and periodicals, you should normally indicate these two large subdivisions. Also you may do well to indicate what sources are primary and what are secondary.***

Regularly begin each item in the bibliography with the name of the author, surname first. An item which designates a book should include also the title, the number of the edition if other than the first (the edition of an encyclopedia should always be given), the place of publication, the name of the publisher, and the date of publication.* An item which designates an article should give the name of the author, the title (in quotation marks), the periodical (in italics), the volume series, and the day, month, and year. The larger divisions of an item are usually separated by periods and the smaller by commas, but sometimes commas are used throughout (see the specimen bibliography at the end of section **E**).

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* For general instructions on note-taking see Article **51**.

**Authorities consulted without actually being drawn from should not be included in the bibliography.

*** Primary sources are the basic or original sources; secondary sources are comments, summaries, or interpretations by outsiders. Thus for the life of a man his authenticated words (whether oral or written) and contemporary accounts by eyewitnesses of his actions are primary sources; hearsay accounts, biographies (except when embodying first-hand material), and historical or critical estimates are secondary sources.

It is not enough for you to acknowledge general indebtedness in a terminal bibliography. You have also to indicate the sources of individual quotations**, statements, and ideas in the body of the paper. For this purpose you must regularly employ footnotes.*** As a rule the first footnote referring to a source should designate the author (given name or initials first****), the title, and the page reference.***** If, however, for any reason a bibliography is not provided, the first footnote conveys the same information as an item in a bibliography would, except that it places the given name or initials of the author before the surname and that it includes the page reference.

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* Not infrequently bibliographies point out in addition the number of pages in the volume.

** Long quotations (two or more lines of poetry; three or more of prose) are "displayed" in the text; that is, they are single-spaced and set in for some distance from both margins without quotation marks.

***A footnote (1) gives evidence of research on your part, (2) enables your reader to verify your citation with a minimum of trouble, (3) often enables your reader to supplement the information you give him or to find information on related topics, (4) makes the original writer rather than you responsible for ideas you may not indorse. (But a footnote is not needed for a generally accepted fact, as that America declared its independence in 1776.)

A different type of footnote supplies comment or detail not belonging in the text. In most instances it represents the writer's own thought and hence does not name a source.

**** This practice, however, is not invariably followed.

***** Often the publisher, place of publication, and date are also included, perhaps in parentheses. For examples of footnotes see the specimen term paper in section **E** of this article.

In subsequent footnote references to a source which has once been named, certain abbreviations are employed. If the reference follows its predecessor without an intervening footnote, it substitutes the single word *ibid.* (= the same) for author and title. If a footnote intervenes, the new reference comprises the surname of the author, the abbreviation *op. cit.* (= in the work cited), and the page reference. If the reference is not only to the same work but to the page last cited in that work, the new footnote comprises only the surname of the author and the abbreviation *loc. cit.* (= in the place cited).

Other abbreviations frequently used in footnotes are the following: *cf.* (= compare), p. (= page), pp. (= pages), vol. (= volume).*

Footnotes may be pointed to in the text by asterisks, daggers, etc., at the end of the passages cited, and may themselves be introduced by like symbols. In scholarly papers, however, it is customary to mark them by Arabic numerals, preferably starting with 1 on each new page.**

Footnotes usually are inserted (in single-spaced typing) at the bottom of the page and separated from the text by a horizontal line. Sometimes they are inserted immediately after the passages referred to, and are separated from the text by lines above and below. The latter method, though convenient to printers, is unsightly in manuscript.***

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*A symbol placed in brackets and inserted within a quotation (in either the text or a footnote) is the word *sic*, meaning *so*. *Sic* takes cognizance of anything false or unusual in the form or content of the passage, and makes the writer quoted rather than the writer quoting responsible.

** But the numbering may be made consecutive throughout a paper.

*** From the forms suggested in this article for bibliographies and footnotes there are, in practice, a good many variations. Any system is satisfactory which indicates sources accurately. But the use of the system adopted should be consistent.

D. ORGANIZING THE PAPER

A term paper, however limited in subject, surveys a considerable body of material and reaches a definite conclusion as to the nature or merit of the matters involved. It should be arranged in such form as to show that it accomplishes this twofold purpose.

For the convenience of your reader you should provide your paper with at least the first four of the five following parts*:

title page
table of contents
text
bibliography or bibliographies
appendix or appendices (if needed)

You should see in addition that each part performs its functions in the best and most suitable way.

The title page should give the title of the paper, name you as the writer, and bear the course number and the date.

The table of contents should list (with page references) the main divisions of the subject, perhaps the more important subdivisions of the subject, the bibliography, and the appendix. To the extent possible its wording and typographical arrangement should bring out the relations of the various divisions and subdivisions to each other.

The text or paper itself should have an introduction, a body, and a conclusion (or recommendation or summary). The introduction should state the precise scope and purpose of the paper,* briefly give any appropriate ideas as to the importance of the topic or the backgrounds for it, differentiate the immediate study from related studies, and carefully define every term that might have different meanings for different people. The body of the paper should take up the main divisions in orderly sequence, should present and analyze ideas and evidence from various sources with regard to each, and should conclude each with a temperate statement of what may be believed or what ought to be done.** The conclusion should remind the reader of the chief matters treated and considerations involved in the body of the paper, and should either announce findings or propose a course.***

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* In the freshman year (at the pleasure of the instructor) the title page and table of contents may be omitted, and the paper need not be divided into sections by numerals or subcaptions. With these changes the paper hardly differs from a long essay.

The bibliography should list the authorities cited in the body of the text. (For bibliographical forms and practices see Section C.)

The appendix (or appendices) may contain material of interest or value which is not strictly relevant to the study, or which because of its length would overload the text or the footnotes.

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* Your topic should present a problem for you to solve or an uncertainty for you to clarify. The best beginning you can make and the best guarantee from wandering from the point is to formulate the entire topic as a question or short series of questions. This done, you have but one task remaining—to find the right answers.

** In each division and subdivision, as in the topic as a whole, normally the best procedure is to phrase a question which shall cover the basic issue and to find the answer to that question.

*** The introduction and the conclusion between them should give the reader a general understanding of what the paper attempts and what it accomplishes.

E. A SPECIMEN TERM PAPER*

[Title Page]

A Study of the Life of Lenin
in the Light of the Conjuncture
Hypothesis of Leadership

by
David G. Bradley

A Paper Submitted
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
in Sociology 196K

The University of Southern California
May, 1938

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* Submitted in an actual course and here reprinted with slight modifications. (In the preliminary definitions an acquaintance with sociology and its terms is taken for granted. The definitions, especially those of the minor terms, should have been greatly simplified if the paper had been intended for general readers.)

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[Introduction]

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE PAPER

This paper makes a study of the life of Lenin in connection with the conjuncture hypothesis of leadership. It inquires whether that hypothesis applies in the case of the well-known Bolshevist, and what the manner and extent of any such application are.

At the outset it must define certain terms and explain the conjuncture hypothesis.

DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

Major Terms

Leader. "A leader is a person who exerts special influence over a number of people. . . . There must be both special influence and numbers of people involved." [1] The concept of the leader as a person with dominant personality traits leading followers with receptive personality traits in an attack upon a social value, or in its defence, is also valuable.[2]

Leadership. "Leadership is personality in action under group conditions. . . . It is interaction between specific traits of one person and other traits of the many, in such a way that the course of action of the many is changed by the one." [3]

The conjuncture hypothesis of leadership. The conjuncture theory assumes that the social phenomenon of leadership is due to the falling together, or conjuncture, of three factors—the personality traits in an individual, the social situation, and an event.

Minor Terms

Conjuncture. Conjuncture means "the sum total of the personal, social, and historical conditions which determine the demand for and supply of leadership in human interactions." [4]

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[1] Emory S. Bogardus, *Leaders and Leadership*, p. 3.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

[4] Clarence Marsh Case, "Leadership and Conjuncture, A Sociological Hypothesis," *Sociology and Social Research*, 6: 510-513, July-August, 1933, p. 511.

Personality traits. "Personality traits represent the more abiding aspects of leadership although they themselves are conceived of as in process of change and development."[1] They have been classified as follows: "(a) physical traits . . . ; (b) temperament; (c) character; (d) social expression . . . ; (e) prestige . . . ; (f) the individual's conception of his role."[2] To this list may be added "such rather permanent traits as Perceptual Ability, Emotional Breadth, Insight, and Drive [*sic*]."[3]

Social situation. The concept employed of the social situation[4] is that which holds that the situation has three aspects:

> (1) The objective conditions under which the individual or society has to act, that is, the totality of values—economic, social, religious, intellectual, etc.—which at the given moment affect directly or indirectly the conscious status of the individual or the group.
>
> (2) The pre-existing attitudes of the individual or the group which at the given moment have an actual influence upon his behavior.
>
> (3) The [individual's] definition of the situation, that is, the more or less clear conception of the conditions and consciousness of the attitudes.[5]

Event. An event is an active element in the whole changing social situation. We should regard "any intrusive change, no matter how trivial or private, as an event if it disrupts the smooth flow of routinary change, of static, recurrent social process, within the field of interest or leadership under consideration at the moment."[6]

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[1] *Loc. cit.*

[2] Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess, *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*, p. 70.

[3] Case, *loc. cit.*, quoting Floyd H. Allport's "Traits of Personality."

[4] *Loc. cit.*

[5] W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*, vol. I, p. 68.

[6] Case, *op. cit.*, p. 513.

The conjuncture hypothesis conceives of leadership as an ever changing social phenomenon—the delicate adjustment of an individual to his social *milieu*, in which his role of leader or follower is constantly being affected by intruding events over which he has no control.

[Body of the Paper]

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF LENIN [1]

Lenin,[2] a child of middle-class parents, was born in 1870 in a little village on the Volga. His father was a superintendent of schools who through his position as a state official later became a member of the lower ranks of the nobility. Lenin's mother was the daughter of a doctor. Thus Lenin had good home training and schooling and yet was in direct contact with the problems and miseries of the masses of old Russia.

His older brother was a member of the Terrorists, a revolutionary group which attempted to assassinate Czar Alexander II. This brother was arrested as one of the conspirators and executed. The event had a powerful influence on Lenin's life. He vowed vengeance upon the czar and disclaimed all faith in a church [3] which could bless such an execution and pronounce God's judgment upon simple peasants for revolting in blind fury against inhuman treatment. Everywhere he saw the church working hand in hand with the state and the army in exploiting the masses and destroying their faith as well as their livelihood.

Lenin entered the same university that his brother had attended, Khazan on the Volga. He was an excellent student, but because of the activities his brother had engaged in was mistrusted and watched. The mistrust was justified; within a month he was expelled for taking a leading part in a political demonstration by the students and was exiled to Siberia for three years.

---

[1] The sketch as a whole is based on David M. Hoffman and Ruth Wagner, editors, *Leadership and a Changing World*, pp. 155-158.

[2] Nikolai Lenin's real name was Vladimir Illyitch Ulyanov. Lenin was one of his many pen names, but he retained it as his real name in later life. Apparently Lenin is the masculine form of *Lena* (Russian for Helen), the name of an early sweetheart. (F. A. Ossendowski, *Lenin, the God of the Godless*, p. 122.)

[3] He renounced, not only the church, but its God.

Lenin was capable of tremendous concentration, being able to read and study from twelve to fifteen hours at a time. During his exile he completely familiarized himself with Marx and Engels, mastered the course of law of the University of Khazan, and acquired a good education otherwise.

In 1900 he returned to Russia, but because of his revolutionary activities was not allowed to live in any important city or industrial center. He married a revolutionary, Nadézhda Konstantínovna, also known as Krupskaia, who is probably the best known woman in Soviet Russia today.[1] Her personality and ideals were soon identified with his and she became an aid and a secretary rather than a wife.

They lived a very precarious existence, roving all over Europe, writing and publishing revolutionary papers and pamphlets. In 1903 Lenin split with the Social Democrats and formed the Bolshevist party.[2] He returned to Russia to help direct the revolution of 1905, an aftermath of the Russo-Japanese war, but it was unsuccessful because of the extreme inertia of the peasantry.

Through another period of hiding and scanty living he continued his never-ceasing flood of revolutionary writings. In 1908 wholesale arrests practically wiped out the Bolshevist party, but Lenin's firm belief in the inevitability of the proletarian revolution was unshaken. From 1909 until 1917 he worked tirelessly by every means available to hasten the time when the exploited working-class of Russia could rise with an irresistible surge and sweep its way to victory and political control.

Although Lenin opposed the World War as "bourgeois imperialistic scrambling for markets,"[3] it was the most significant event in his life. The war changed and crystallized many of his ideas and was the direct cause of the revolution. On account of the Second International's upholding the war in Germany, Lenin organized the Third International. His aim was to spread revolt in the Russian army so as to cause the government's defeat and subsequent loss of prestige in the eyes of the people.

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[1] Hoffman and Wagner, *op. cit.*, p. 155.

[2] Bolshevist is Russian for majority.

[3] Hoffman and Wagner, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

In the spring of 1917 the army revolted, the czar abdicated, and a moderate provisional government was set up. Lenin returned to Petrograd, where he advocated non-cooperation with the middle class, who were for a democratic republic. He wanted complete revolution and the destruction of every social and material value of capitalism. The defeat of the Russian army in July started general uprisings against the aristocracy. On November 7, 1917 (late October by the old calendar), the Bolshevists seized control of the government. As head of the Bolshevist party and chairman of the Council of the People's Commissars, Lenin was now virtual dictator of Russia.

The revolutionaries made peace with Germany and for seven months worked toward a communistic state. Then in 1918 began a two-year period of ruthless war and destruction. The communists had the double task of fighting internal revolt and holding back the armies of the allies who were helping the White Russians in an attempt to stamp out communism. Though external peace came in 1920, Lenin continued to rule Russia with a hand of iron. Except to address the masses he hardly left the Kremlin for any cause during this period and up to the time of his death. He became ill from overwork in 1921, but because of his iron will and strict control his authority was never questioned by his party.

Lenin was a man with a gospel, the message of a classless society as the salvation of the exploited masses of Russia. He never deviated from his goal and is now worshipped as a god by the millions that he led. He died on January 21, 1924, from a paralytic stroke. His funeral was one of the greatest ever witnessed by man.

ANALYSIS OF THE LIFE OF LENIN IN TERMS OF THE CONJUNCTURE HYPOTHESIS OF LEADERSHIP

Personality Traits

Lenin was a Russian of the Mongoloid type. He was under average size with a large head and prominent forehead. Brilliant and undeviating in his intellect, he was a tireless worker who concentrated always on the job just at hand—rather more of a machine than a human being to his associates.

Lenin was fearless, often placing himself in danger of his very life. He underwent untold hardships of poverty and want. In his revolutionary work he had to make many talks and addresses. He spoke with a harsh voice, and very simply, repeating one simple thought over and over so as to drive it home. Mainly, however, he expressed his thoughts through his writings, of which it has been said, "Here is the record not only of a remarkable statesman but of an intellect powerful, flexible and creative."[1] Known to only a few persons, he exerted most of his influence through well-disciplined and trained helpers. His sole goal was revolution leading to the "dictatorship of the proletariat." He did not, in his own thinking, recognize compromise as a possibility. "For when the heart directs, compromise follows," he declared. "I can't stand compromise! I don't recognize it!"[2] He believed in reason as the law and ruler of life.

This singleness of purpose coupled with an uncompromising will and the belief that any act which helped him achieve his purpose was good aided him greatly in achieving his goal.

> Lenin's historical greatness is to be found not in creative originality of thought, but his unrivalled ability to transmute an existing system of economic and philosophic thought into a program of militant action.[3]

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[1] Vida D. Scudder, "A Little Tour in the Mind of Lenin," *Christian Century*, 54:379-382, March, 1937, p. 380.

[2] Ossendowski, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

[3] William Henry Chamberlain, *The Russian Revolution, 1917-1921*, vol. 1, p. 137.

Aspects of Lenin's Social Situation

Existing Social Values

Lenin led the proletarians of Russia in an attack upon all the existing economic, social, religious, and intellectual values and beliefs of the upper classes. He believed that every bourgeois value had to be scrapped to make way for the new order of things. The Greek Orthodox Church had lost prestige in the eyes of the people because of its consistent policy of siding with the bourgeoisie. The economic order was capitalistic and the political order aristocratic, both institutions being for the benefit of the few by means of the exploitation of the masses. The peasants and workers saw their women continually molested by their masters. The legal system was democratically a farce. Education was for the very few and under strict censorship.

The Russian people had been fighting a sapping, unsuccessful foreign war and were restless. There was a long heritage of revolts against the upper classes; many revolutionary parties were unceasingly inciting the people to mob violence.

The peasantry, however, were a class apart. They had been freed from serfdom in the nineteenth century and given land of their own. They were land-hungry and were kept that way, in order that they might be more easily controlled by their landlords. They wanted land, and not a classless society.

Lenin, therefore, had to depend upon the proletariat to start his revolt. They lived the precarious existence of wage-earners, were constantly striking, were constantly being manhandled by the police. Thus the workers were in sympathy with revolutionary action, having few social values to defend or lose.

Pre-existing Attitudes of the Group

Lenin early came in contact with tales of Steynka Razin, a legendary character of the Volga, who, like Robin Hood of England, helped the poor and harassed the rich.[1] Razin and others of his kind were looked upon as heroes for their daring exploits against aristocracy. The people had a widespread tradition of a savior who would come wearing a gold crown and bearing in his hand a "white letter," and who would lead them to victory against their oppressors, the ruling class.[1] These attitudes caused Lenin to be later hailed by the people as a savior and a god.

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[1] Ossendowski, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

The whole world had had a long history of proletarian uprisings against the vested interests of landlords and capitalists. Class consciousness is centuries old, and the Russian people had it to no small degree. The revolt of 1905 and several in the nineteenth century were not forgotten, but rather, very little was needed to stir up the smouldering coals of hatred and fear into the flame of revolution. This very fact intensified Lenin's task, for many of the people under czarist rule were not Russians and were seeking freedom from the Russian yoke. Lenin realized this problem and said that a unity of will for the communist cause could be secured only by subjecting the will of thousands to the will of one.[2]

Lenin's Definition of the Situation

Lenin looked upon himself as "only one helping to carry on a conflict which had commenced at the dawn of history."[3] On every side he saw misery, hate, cruelty, and injustice for the masses and he was filled with an overpowering desire to avenge these wrongs and put an end to them forever. "He had a definite social philosophy which he was able to put into practice, something which has rarely happened in the world's history."[4] He believed in Marx's interpretation of history in regard to the ceaseless class struggle due to class consciousness, and he acted accordingly.

The Event

An event of prime importance in the personal life of Lenin was the execution of his brother Alexander for taking a part in the plot on the czar's life. A desire to avenge the family name upon the czar, coupled with a hatred against the religious, political, and economic elements in the society that had caused his brother to revolt and to suffer execution, stirred Lenin to a bitter fight against czarist Russia.

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 223.

[2] Hoffman and Wagner, *op. cit.*, p. 168.

[3] F. J. P. Veale, *The Man from the Volga*, p. 3.

[4] Hoffman and Wagner, *op. cit.*, p. 156.

But the event which made all of his success possible was the World War. One of his biographers sums up the influence of the conflict upon him as follows:

> Had the War broken out ten years after it did, Lenin would have gone to his grave an obscure exile, faintly remembered in revolutionary circles as one of the unsuccessful organizers of the Revolution of 1905 and as the author of a number of rare and unreadable books on economics. Coming when it did the War gave Lenin the chance of his life.[1]

The biographer goes on to say that very few proletarian revolts ever have taken place "without the prestige of the ruling class first being impaired, generally by an unsuccessful foreign war."[2] He has the concept of an event as being an intrusive factor, for he declares that the revolution "would not have taken place but for an extraneous and accidental circumstance (an unsuccessful foreign war) over which the insurgents had no control."[3]

Lenin himself had always believed in Marx's prophetic statement that capitalism leads to war, which leads to unrest of the people, and that defeat in a war can pave the way for revolution. He was able to make full use of this idea. He entered Russia in 1917 to spread revolt in the army so as to bring defeat and loss of prestige to the government. That summer he advocated peace, a thing the war-weary masses longed for, and thus he was able to win their support.

CONCLUSION

The conjuncture hypotheses seems to fit Lenin's life very well.

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[1] Veale, *op. cit.*, Author's Preface, p. XIII.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

His domineering and scheming personality, reinforced by great executive ability, his liberal education and early contact with Marx, the social situation with a heritage of violence and revolt against oppression which grew ever more severe, the desire of the people for a leader, and Lenin's definition of his own role as that of one who could free the people—all of these are important in determining the precise character of his activities and achievements.

> The Russian Revolution was in no small degree the result of the contact of two potentially explosive forces: the socially revolutionary teachings of Karl Marx and the peculiar conditions of Eurasian Russia, where the primitive mentality of the poverty-stricken masses, the repressive traditions of autocracy, the absence of a moderating powerful middle class and the numerous sharp jagged edges of social, economic and racial antagonisms made the soil singularly propitious for a literal application of Marx's more violent theories. And Lenin, in whom Western education and assimilation of Western economic and philosophical theory were strangely and strikingly blended with some very characteristic psychological traits, absolute faith in his convictions, intolerance of opposition, contempt for compromise, was the indispensable incarnate link between Western revolutionary theory and Russian revolutionary practice.[1]

With such a situation and such a leader the stage was all set for action. The World War proved to be the *event* that made Lenin's dream of a communist state possible. The war led to the revolt which was partially incited by Lenin and later dominated by him. The revolution probably would have occurred without Lenin, but who shall say that the revolution would have been successful without him? The French Revolution, like almost all others, ended in reaction.

Whereas his predecessors, the leaders of proletarian revolu-

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[1] Chamberlain, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

> tions in former ages, never attained to more than a transitory success, he not only overthrew the existing order of things, but established a new system of society which has successfully withstood all attempts to overthrow it.[1]

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[1] Veale, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

LETTERS AND MANUSCRIPT

Letters

A. THE HEADING, THE INSIDE ADDRESS, AND THE GREETING

53A. The heading of a letter should give the full address of the writer and the date of writing. The inside address should be the same as the outside address.* The greeting (also called the salutation) should be separated by a blank space from the inside address. Do not abbreviate short words, or omit Street or Avenue.

Objectionable: # 15 Hickory, Omaha

Right: 15 Hickory Street
Omaha, Nebraska

Objectionable: 4/12/40; 10 - 28 - '41

Right: April 12, 1940; October 28, 1941**

When a street address is not necessary, the address and date may be placed in one line thus:

Prescott, Arizona, June 1, 1941

The usual practice is to give the street address and to make the heading a well-balanced block of three lines.

---

* For omitting the inside address, or for placing it at the end of the letter, see **E**, Note 3.

** *October 28, 1941*, is slightly preferable to *October 28th, 1941*. Both *October 28* and *October 28th* (when not followed by the year) are in good use.

Correct Heading, Inside Address, and Greeting

935 Lawrence Avenue
Portland, Oregon
July 6, 1943

Mr. Joseph N. Kellog
1411 Lake Street
Cleveland, Ohio

Dear Mr. Kellog:

Indented Address and "Closed" Punctuation

Note 1.—In the model just given the first six lines are left "open" at the ends (the open space takes the place of punctuation). It is also correct to indent the successive items of the inside address, placing commas after the first two lines and a period after the third, thus:

1105 South Street,
Piedmont, Maryland,
June 18, 1941.

Mr. John Reynolds,
320 Orchard Avenue,
Utica, New York.

Dear Mr. Reynolds:

Correct Heading and Inside Address (Block Form)

106 East Race Street
Red Oak, Iowa
May 7, 1942

Mr. Joseph N. Kellog
1411 Lake Street
Cleveland, Ohio

Dear Mr. Kellog:

The inside address and the greeting begin at the left margin.

B. THE BODY

B. The body of a letter should be correct in form.

1. Begin the body of the letter on the line below the greeting. Indent that line as much as the first line in an ordinary paragraph, about three quarters of an inch (except in the extreme block form, when you should begin all paragraphs like the greeting, at the left margin).
2. Do not omit pronouns, or write a "telegraphic style."

   Wrong: Just received yours of the 21st, and in reply would say your order was filled and shipped on the next day.
   Right: In accordance with your letter of March 21 we promptly filled your order and sent the consignment by American Railway Express, charges collect, on March 22.

3. The idea that it is immodest to use *I* is a superstition. Undue repetition of *I* is of course awkward; but entire avoidance of it is silly.
4. Use simple language. Say *your letter;* not "your kind favor," or "yours duly received," or "yours of the 21st at hand."
5. Avoid "begging" expressions which you obviously do not mean, especially the hackneyed "beg to advise."

   Wrong: Received yours of the 3rd instant, and beg to advise we are out of stock.
   Right: We received your order of March 3. We find that we have no dining-room chairs B 2-4-6 in stock.

   Wrong: I beg to enclose a booklet.
   Right: I enclose a booklet.

   Faulty: Permit us to say that prices have been advanced.
   Right: The prices on our goods have been advanced.

6. Avoid the formula "please find enclosed." The reader will find what is enclosed; if you use *please*, let it refer to what the reader shall do with what is enclosed.

   Wrong: Enclosed please find 10 cents, for which send me Bulletin 58.

   Right: I enclose ten cents, for which please send me Bulletin 58.

7. Avoid unnecessary commercial slang: "On the job," "A-1 service," "O.K.," "your ad," "popular-priced line," "this party," "as per schedule."

8. Get to the important idea quickly. In applying for a position, do not beat around the bush, or say you "wish to apply" or "would apply." Begin *I make application for . . .*, *Kindly consider my application for . . .*, or *I apply . . .*

9. Group your ideas logically. Do not scatter information. A letter applying for a position might consist of three paragraphs: Personal qualifications (age, health, education, etc.); Experience (nature of positions, dates, etc.); References (names, business or profession, exact street address). Finish one group of ideas before passing to the next.

10. Do not monotonously close all letters with a sentence beginning with a participle: "Hoping to hear from you . . . ," "Asking your cooperation . . . ," "Awaiting your further favors . . . ," "Trusting this will be satisfactory . . . ," "Wishing you . . . ," "Thanking you . . . ," The independent form of the verb is more emphatic; "I hope to hear from you . . . ," "We await further orders . . . ," "We ask cooperation . . . ."

C. THE GREETING, THE CLOSE, AND THE SIGNATURE

C. The greeting and the close should be consistent in tone: if one is formal the other should be formal, etc. Each should occupy a separate line and should begin with a capital.

The greeting should begin at the left margin and should be followed by a comma (especially in short notes) or a colon (especially in long or business letters).

The close should begin in mid-line and be followed by a comma.

Open Punctuation

Note 2.—Punctuation may be omitted after greeting and close when the heading and inside address are similarly treated (see **A**). But many persons reason that since greeting and close belong somewhat intimately with the body of the letter, they should be followed by punctuation even when the heading and inside address are "open."

Greetings used in business letters include the following:

Dear Mr. Smith:
Dear Mrs. Green:
Dear Miss Alden:
Dear Sir:
Sir:
Gentlemen:
Dear Madam
My dear Madam:
Ladies:

Greetings used in personal letters include the following:

Dear Miss Brown:
Dear Professor Ward:
Dear Mrs. Vincent,
Dear Jones,
Dear Olive,
Dear Bob,*

Closing phrases used in business letters include the following:

Yours very truly,
Yours truly,
Very truly yours,
Yours respectfully,

---

*As a rule, the more familiar the letter, the shorter the greeting.

In personal letters the following phrases are used:

Yours sincerely,
Yours truly,
Sincerely yours,
Cordially yours,

Preceding expressions like "I am," "I remain," "As ever," (if they are used at all) belong in the body of the letter.

Right: I thank you for your courtesy, and remain
Yours sincerely,
Robert Blair

Right: I shall be grateful for any further information you can give me.
Yours truly,
Florence Mitchell

The signature should be written; it should be made clear and simple.* A man never gives himself a title or degree (Mr., Dr., M.D., Ph. D.) either before or after his signature. It is unnecessary, though permissible, for an unmarried woman to put (Miss) in parenthesis before her signature. A married woman should add below her own name her married name in parenthesis (Mrs. Jonathan Deane).

Wrong: Yours sincerely,
Allen Jenkins, M.D.
Right: Yours sincerely,
Allen Jenkins
Right: Very truly yours,
Alice Brown
(Mrs. Norman E. Brown)

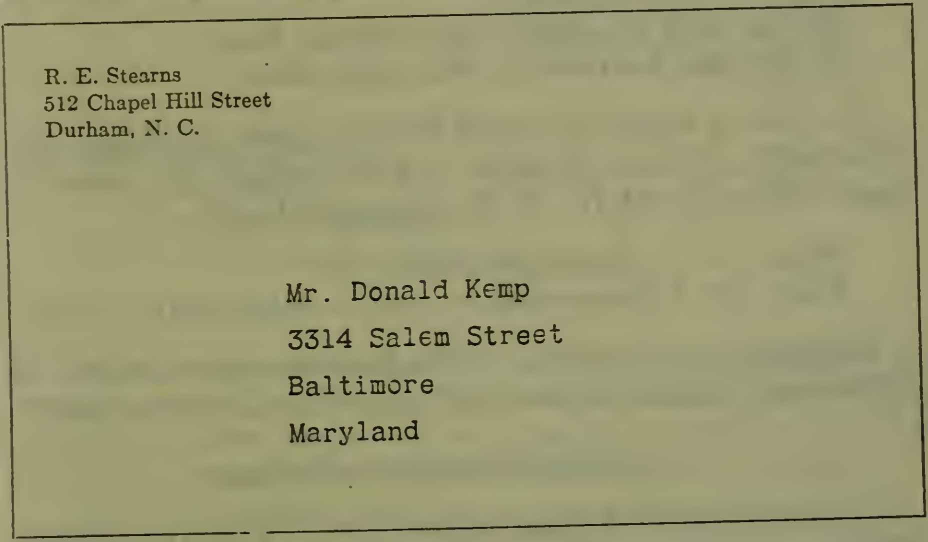
The signature is regularly open (not followed by punctuation).

---

*A typed signature may, and often should, follow the written one to confirm and clarify it.

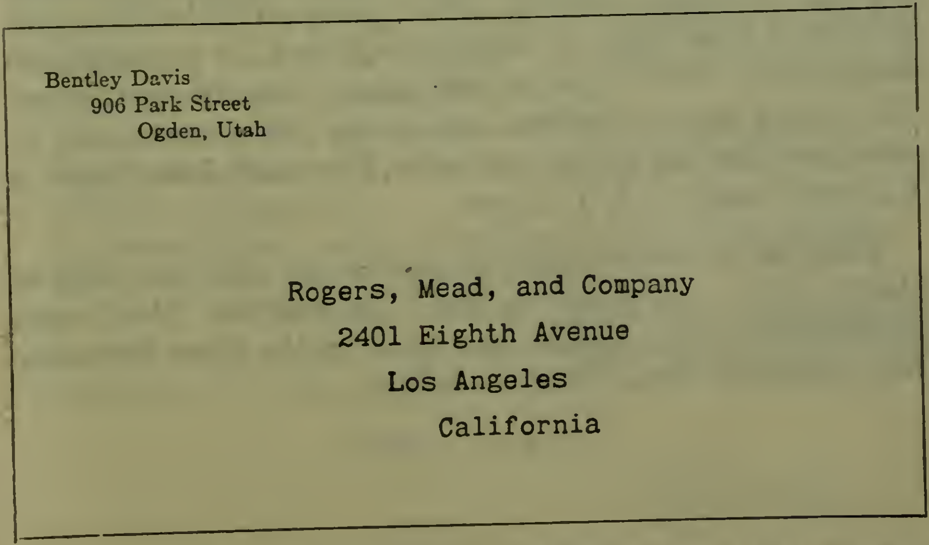
D. THE OUTSIDE ADDRESS

D. The outside address should follow one of the forms given here:



R. E. Stearns
512 Chapel Hill Street
Durham, N. C.

Mr. Donald Kemp
3314 Salem Street
Baltimore
Maryland



Bentley Davis
906 Park Street
Ogden, Utah

Rogers, Mead, and Company
2401 Eighth Avenue
Los Angeles
California

A married woman is ordinarily addressed thus: Mrs. George

H. Turner (rather than Mrs. Grace Turner). But a title belonging to the husband should not be transferred to the wife.

Wrong: Mrs. Dr. Jenkins, Mrs. Professor Ward
Right: Mrs. John Jenkins, Mrs. Arthur Ward

If a title of respect is placed before a name (Professor, Dr., Honorable), it is not desirable to place another title after the name (Secretary, M.D., Ph.D., Principal, Esq.).

Wrong: Dr. A. Bruce Steele, M.D.,
Right: Dr. A. Bruce Steele, or A. Bruce Steele, M.D.

A minister is referred to as "The Reverend Mr. Beecher" or "Reverend Charles K. Beecher"; not "Reverend Beecher."

E. MISCELLANEOUS DIRECTIONS

Writing should be centered on the page, not crowded against the top, or against one side. Letter paper so folded that each sheet is a little book of four pages is best for personal correspondence. Both sides of such paper may be written on. The pages may be written on in any order which will be convenient to the reader. An order like that of the pages in a printed book (1, 2, 3) is best.

Business letters are usually written on only one side of sheets 8½ by 11 inches in size. The sheet is folded once horizontally in the middle, and twice in the other direction, for insertion in the ordinary envelope.

Model Business Letter

526 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, California
May 14, 1940

Mr. Carl Griffith, Manager
The Acme Garage
6001 Sunset Boulevard
Los Angeles, California

Dear Sir:

I apply for a position as mechanic's assistant in your garage. I am nineteen years old, and in good physical condition. On June 6 I shall complete my first year's work in engineering at California Institute of Technology, and after that date I can begin work immediately.

I have had practical experience in garage work. For two years I have made a special study of auto mechanics, in and out of school. I worked last summer in Taylor and Brown's Wilshire Service Station. In addition, I have become familiar with tools in my workshop at home, so that I both know and like machinery.

For statements as to my character and ability I refer to
Mr. Eugene M. Brown, of Taylor and Brown's Wilshire Service Station (Fairfax 2357)
Mr. George Knight, lawyer, 2145 Kingsley Road (Oxford 7612)
Mr. Louis Vieth, banker (Garfield 27785)
Mr. H. W. Holt, Principal of Franklin High School (Garfield 22825)
These men can be reached by the local telephone, and they have given me permission to use their names.

Respectfully yours,

Howard Rolfe

Model Personal Letter

1204 Highland Avenue
Albany, New York
April 26, 1941

Dear Cynthia:

At last I can write definitely that preparations are complete. I shall leave Albany day after tomorrow, Friday afternoon, at 5 o'clock, on the New York Central, train 21. I should reach Hampton at 8:25 in the evening. I shall have to return home Sunday night.

Have you heard that Morris is working his way through school at Syracuse? And that the Wellses have a new car? And of Marie's marriage? I have another bit of news that I am saving for a surprise. It will be pleasant to meet your mother again; it is good of her to invite me.

Cordially yours,
Rita

Note 3.—A personal letter always contains a greeting, but may omit the inside address or may place it after the signature in the lower left-hand corner. It may even begin informally with the greeting, leaving both heading and inside address to fall at the end.

F. FORMAL NOTES (INVITATIONS)

F. Formal notes and replies are written in the third person (avoiding *I, my, me, you, your*). They employ no abbreviations except *Mr., Mrs., Dr.* and no numerals except street numbers.

Mr. and Mrs. Clarence King

request the company of

Mr. Charles Eliot

at dinner on Friday, the tenth of May,

at six o'clock

514 Poplar Avenue

Replies to Invitations

Acceptances follow the same form as the invitation, repeating the day and the hour so as to avoid misunderstanding. The verb used in the reply should be in the present tense.

Wrong: will be pleased to accept
Right: is pleased to accept

Wrong: regrets that he will be unable to accept
Right: regrets that he is unable to

Mr. Charles Eliot accepts with pleasure

the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. King

to dinner on Friday, the tenth of May,

at six o'clock.

Exercise

Write out in correct letter form, fully punctuated, each of the numbered passages below, just as it would appear in a letter. In place of the body of the letter insert one horizontal row of dots. Use "closed punctuation" (see **A**) and indented form in the first five letters (be careful to indent uniformly). In the other five use any form you choose, provided it is uniform and consistent.

1. 1356 Alison Place Cedar Rapids Iowa March 11 1941 Mrs. Robert Edmond Lewis Mendota Illinois Dear Aunt Eva Affectionately yours Lydia Mossman
2. 201 Haynes Building Madison Wisconsin July 9 1941 Dr Edward L Stone State Chemist St Paul Minnesota Dear Dr Stone Yours truly C R Brown City Health Physician

3. 1101 Maxwell Avenue Lancaster Pennsylvania January 10 1940 To the Secretary of the School Board District Number 3 Blue Springs Tennessee Dear Sir Respectfully yours (Miss) Irene Pollock

4. Niagara Falls New York August 15 1941 Walter Triplett and Co Ltd South Bend Indiana Gentlemen Yours truly A H Hutton for Hutton Brothers

5. 22 Tremont Lane Cincinnati Ohio April 9 1942 Bryne and Lane Book Dealers 18 Old Bond Street London W England Sirs Very truly yours Michel A Patterson

6. Spruce Court Ann Arbor Michigan June 9 1945 Mesdames Meigs and McTavish Ontario Building Lansing Michigan Ladies Very sincerely yours Anna P Claxton (Mrs E L)

7. Daily News Building Decatur Illinois March 19 1940 Senator Robert H McGregor State Capitol Building Springfield Illinois Sir Respectfully yours M L Springer Assemblyman

8. 1136 La Verne Avenue Jackson Michigan July 15 1943 Reverend Mr James R Griffith La Crosse Wisconsin Dear Sir Very truly yours John K Adams

9. 22 Adelaide Road Louisville Kentucky November 11 1943 Miss Anna Raymond Principal Milwaukee Downer Seminary Milwaukee Wisconsin My dear Miss Raymond Very respectfully yours Jane C Byrd (Mrs Roger Farnsworth Byrd)

10. 103 Carson Street Pittsburgh Pennsylvania January 4 1940 Mr Martin P West Secretary of the Rotary Club 647 Lincoln Street Des Moines Iowa Dear Mr West Very sincerely yours Allen Crocker

Manuscript and Mechanics

54. Through care and attention make your manuscript conform to good use in all matters of mechanics, and assist rather than obstruct the work of the reader.

A. PAPER, INK, AND ENDORSEMENT

Use the kind and size of paper the instructor prescribes. If he issues no instructions, use unruled sheets eight and a half inches wide by eleven inches long.

Always either type your themes or write them in black or blue-black ink. Never use pencil. Write on only one side of the sheet.

Unless otherwise instructed, fold the written paper vertically and place on the outside your name, the course and section numbers, your theme subject, and the date.

B. THE TITLE

Center a title on the page. Capitalize important words. It is undesirable to place a period after a title, but a question mark or exclamation point should be used when one is appropriate. Do not underscore the title, or unnecessarily place it in quotation marks. Leave a blank line under the title, before beginning the body of the writing. Ordinarily, do not refer to the title in the first line of a theme.

Faulty:

COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY

I am interested in this new development of science. For a long time I . . .

Right:

COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY

Taking pictures in color has long appealed to me as an interesting possibility . . .

C. SPACING

Remember that careful spacing is as necessary as punctuation. Place writing on a page as you would frame a picture, crowding it toward neither the top nor the bottom. Leave liberal margins. Indent three quarters of an inch at the beginning of paragraphs. Keep blank any portion of the last line of a paragraph which the material of that paragraph does not cover, but permit no long gaps at the end of other lines. Leave a space after a word and a double space after a sentence. In typewriting, use double spacing between lines except in footnotes and in quoted passages made to stand by themselves on the page. In handwritten pages, leave room between successive lines, and do not let the loops of letters run into the lines above or below. Keep footnotes clearly separated from the text by a horizontal line or a belt of white space.

D. HANDWRITING

Write a clear, legible hand, uncrowded and unsprawling. Connect all the letters of a word. Take pains to keep capitals and small letters from looking alike. Form *a*, *o*, *u*, *n*, *e*, *i* properly. Write out *and* horizontally. Avoid unnecessary flourishes and curlicues. Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*, not with circles or long eccentric strokes, but simply and naturally. Form the letters of proper names with care and precision. Make your own signature completely legible; many a person goes through life without learning to write his name clearly enough for a stranger to read it.

E. DELETION AND INSERTION

To cancel a word, draw through it a horizontal line. Never use parentheses to indicate deletion. Never hand in a page made unsightly by numerous deletions and erasures; copy your material on a fresh sheet.

To supply omitted words, write them above the line and show the place by inserting a caret (∧) below the line.

F. ABBREVIATIONS

In ordinary writing avoid abbreviations. You may always, however, employ the following safely:

Mr., Messrs., Mrs., Mmes. (Mesdames), Dr., or St. (Saint), before proper names.*
Jr., Sr., Esq., D.D., LL.D., etc., after proper names.
B. C. or A. D., when necessary to avoid confusion, after a date.
No. or $ before numerals.

In ordinary writing spell out the following:

All titles, except those listed above (and even those titles when not accompanying proper names)
Names of months, of days of the week, of states, of countries
Christian names, unless initials are used instead
Words like volume, chapter, page, history, mathematics, chemistry
Street, Avenue, Road, Railroad, Park, Fort, Mountain, Company, Brothers, Manufacturing, etc.
Names of weights and measures, except in statistics

In ordinary writing observe the following:

Instead of & write *and*.
Instead of *in the a. m.* or *this p. m.* write *in the morning* or *this afternoon*.

---

* *Hon.* and *Rev.* may ordinarily be used before proper names when the surname is preceded by the Christian name or by the initials. In a highly formal context, however, these titles are spelled out and preceded by *the*.

Do not overuse *etc.* (*et cetera*).

Never place *and* before *etc.* [The Latin *et* means *and*.]

In writing of any sort place a period after an abbreviation.*

G. SYLLABICATION

When a word is broken at the end of a line, use a hyphen there. Do not place a hyphen at the beginning of the second line.

Never divide a monosyllable. Never divide a word of two or more syllables except between syllables.**

Wrong division of monosyllables	*Wrong division of words containing more than one syllable*
wh-ich	depa-rtment
thr-ough	disc-harge
dip-ped	abs-urd
spe-ak	unive-rsity
cl-ass	prof-essor

Correct form of monosyllables	*Correct division of words containing more than one syllable*
which	depart-ment
through	dis-charge
dipped	ab-surd
speak	univer-sity
class	pro-fessor

---

[*] In business correspondence, technical writing, tabulations, footnotes, and bibliographies, use abbreviations to whatever extent they are really needed. But you will scarcely have imperative reason to write the abbreviation *st.* unless you precede it with the name of the street, or to employ shortened forms of short words like *Iowa*, *Maine*, *Ohio*, *Utah*, *March*, *April*, *July*.

[**] If a syllable is divided, one or the other of the fragments is unpronounceable, or at least cannot be sounded with the effect it has in the word.

For correct division between syllables as an aid to spelling see **20B**, especially the fourth word list.

Note that a consonant at the junction of two syllables usually goes with the second, and that two or more consonants at the junction of syllables are themselves divided.*

One consonant at the junction of syllables	*Two or more consonants at the junction of syllables*
recipro-cate	enter-prise
ordi-nance	com-mis-sary
inti-mate	in-car-nate

Ordinarily set off a prefix or a verbal suffix from the rest of the word regardless of the rule for consonants between syllables.**

ex-empt
dis-appoint
sing-ing
commend-ed

Do not separate one or two letters (unless in prefixes like *un-* or suffixes like *-ly*) from the rest of the word.

achieve-ment (not *a-chievement*)
enor-mous (not *e-normous*)
remem-bered (not *remember-ed*)***
dyspep-sia (not *dyspepsi-a*)

---

* Sometimes two consonants are equivalent to a single letter and hence must not be divided. Examples:

au-thenticity (not *aut-henticity*)
falli-ble (not *fallib-le*)
photo-graph-ic (not *photog-rap-hic*)

** But when a final consonant is doubled before a suffix the additional consonant goes with the suffix. Examples:

trip-ping permit-ted omis-sion

*** This form represents a split syllable, since the *-ed* is not pronounced separately.

H. NUMBERS

In general, write out numbers which you can express in a few words.*

> Right: The box weighs two hundred pounds. Xerxes had an army of three million men. I enclose seventy-five cents. He owed twelve hundred dollars. Grandfather Toland is eighty-seven years old. The train is due at a quarter past three.

But use figures for numbers which you cannot express briefly in words. Use the dollar sign and figures with complicated sums of money.

> Right: The farm comprised 3,262 acres. The population of Kansas City, Missouri, was 399,746 in 1930. He earned $437 while attending school. The cost of the improvement was $1,940.25.

Use figures for numbers in giving dates, hours (when followed by *a. m.* or *p. m.*), street addresses, telephone numbers, or page references to books.

Except in legal or commercial writing, do not follow written numbers with confirmatory figures in parentheses. Even in such writing, make sure that the parenthetical figures confirm the right elements and those only.

> Objectionable: We had six (6) guests.
> Right: We had six guests.
>
> Wrong: The bill is for seventeen ($17) dollars.
> Permissible: The bill is for seventeen dollars ($17).
>
> Wrong: The bill is for seventeen dollars (17).
> Permissible: The bill is for seventeen (17) dollars.

---

* For example, numbers which designate ages, time of day, sums of money less than one dollar, and uncomplicated sums of money larger than one dollar.

MANUSCRIPT AND MECHANICS

I. ITALICS*

Quoted Titles

Use italics for the quoted titles of books and periodicals. (Use quotation marks for the quoted titles of articles, chapters within books, and individual short poems, essays, or short stories.**) Always give quoted titles fully and exactly.***

> Right: In Miss Millay's volume *The Buck in the Snow* I like best the title poem "The Buck in the Snow."
>
> Right: Surely everybody admires *Hamlet.* [The italics show that the writer means *Hamlet* the play, not Hamlet the man.]

In informal writing where the use of capital letters makes confusion of any sort impossible, you may omit both italics for books and periodicals, and quotation marks for their subdivisions. In such writing, you should not capitalize an initial *a*, *an*, or *the* as a part of the title.

> Permissible in informal writing: In the Scarlet Letter a striking chapter is the one called the Child at the Brookside.

Foreign Words

Italicize foreign words which are still thought of as foreign.

> Right: A great noise announced the coming of the *enfant terrible.*
>
> Right: A play begins *in medias res.*

---

* In a manuscript or typed paper, underscoring is used to indicate italics. Italics and quotation marks are often interchanged. The usage here prescribed is that of the best printing houses and the most careful writers.

** The reason why italics (or quotation marks) are not to be used throughout is that books and subdivisions of books, or periodicals and articles, should be distinguished mechanically when named together. When they are not named together, the distinction is usually less important.

*** *The*, however, even when officially a part of the title of a periodical, is not usually italicized (or placed in quotation marks). Nor is the name of a city or other geographical unit. Example:

I subscribe to the *Atlantic Monthly* and the Boston *Transcript.*

Words or Letters as Such

Either italicize or place in quotation marks words or letters taken from all context and made the subject of reference or comment.

Right: The word *so* is faded and colorless from constant use.
Right: The *t* in *often* is not pronounced.

Names of Ships

Italicize the names of ships.

Right: The *Saxonia* will sail at four o'clock.

Emphasis

In highly exceptional cases italicize a word or passage which requires great emphasis. As a practice, however, depend for emphasis upon the structure and sequence of your sentences and the force of your ideas.

J. QUOTATIONS AND REFERENCES TO SOURCES

If you borrow a passage, a sentence, or even an idea, from a book, an article, or a lecture, acknowledge your indebtedness fully. Any other course is dishonest.

Direct Quotations (Short)

Place brief quoted matter (a significant phrase, a sentence or two) in quotation marks. Make an exact transcript from the original—word for word, letter for letter. If you omit a word or passage indicate the omission by a series of dots, thus . . . . Do not, ordinarily, break the paragraph to set the quotation off to itself; keep the paragraph solid and embody the quotation with other material.

Direct Quotations (Long)

"Display" long quotations; that is, set them in from both margins, single-space them, and omit quotation marks (the format will show the borrowing). Write verse as verse; keep the original division of the lines. Example:

> Ed Hackley, the driver, was a listless fellow who saw nothing of interest in nature. He was like Peter Bell:
>
> > A primrose by the river's brim
> > A yellow primrose was to him,
> > And it was nothing more.
>
> He seemed never fully awake.

Reference to Sources

List your general authorities at the end of the paper, thus:

> Sources of material:
> Macaulay: *The History of England*, Vol. I, p. 52 ff. (A discussion of the Puritans in England.)
> *The Cambridge History of American Literature*, Book I, Chap. 3, p. 31 ff. (An account of the Puritans in America.)

Acknowledge in the body of the composition or by means of footnotes your indebtedness for individual ideas or excerpts, thus:

> Textual acknowledgment for particular ideas: The solemnity and severity of the early Puritans may have been intensified by the fact that they emphasized Old Testament rather than New Testament scripture. This appears to be the view of Macaulay (see *The History of England*, Vol. I, p. 52). In America the Puritan rigor experienced a gradual thawing under the influence of new surroundings and new ideas. (See *The Cambridge History of American Literature*, Book I, Chap. 3, p. 31.)

Textual use of quotation, with footnote reference to source:

> Though cold reality has robbed us of many things we believed, we yet, as the poet says,
>
> trust that somehow good
> Will be the final goal of ill.*
>
> Through all disillusion that faith persists.

How to Revise and Improve Your Writing

55. Proofread all papers for accurate form and clearness before you hand them in. Get the full benefit of criticism and revision afterward. As soon as your written work is returned, study the comments written on it. Make the changes called for by each comment. Keep all written work until the end of the year, and be prepared to discuss it with the instructor in conference.

A figure **1** written in the margin of your paper means "Read Article **1** in the handbook and revise your sentence in the light of it." When an **X** follows the number you are, in addition to studying the article in the handbook, to write the exercise that follows the passage referred to. Hand in this exercise, on theme paper, at the next meeting of the class.

Symbols are often used by instructors to save time in making corrections. A few of the most useful ones are listed below:

awk or k = awkward
cap = use a capital
lc [lower case]
or no cap = use a small letter
coh = incoherent
d = diction faulty
gr = grammar faulty
p = punctuation faulty
sp = misspelling
ss = sentence sense

✓ = error. Find it. Correct it.
¶ = begin a new paragraph
no ¶ = no new paragraph
∧ = something omitted here
δ = delete, take out
tr or ∽ = transpose
? = Who? What? Why? Something is uncertain, incomplete, or questionable here.

---

* Tennyson, *In Memoriam*, Canto LIV, lines 1-2.

Never erase the instructor's signs or comments. Never destroy a paper that is returned to you; keep *all* papers until the end of the year. Rewrite a paper only when you are asked to do so. When you are asked to rewrite, *never destroy the old paper*. Hand it in with the new version so that the instructor may see what improvement has been made.

HOW TO CORRECT PAPERS ON THE BACK OF THE PRECEDING PAGE

Make necessary corrections on the back of the preceding page, as nearly as possible opposite the errors in the original. If the preceding page has not been returned to you, insert a blank sheet. Write out only so much of the paragraph or sentence as is necessary to make the improvement understood. If a mark of punctuation has been omitted, write only a word or two before and after the proper mark. Never erase the instructor's signs or comments.

EXAMPLE OF INSTRUCTOR'S COMMENTS

Richard Wright
November 10, 1942

Opportunities in Canada

Canada has an area of about
3,730,000 square miles ^ and its popu- *25A*
lation is only eleven millions. It
has vast supplies of timber and
minerals. Great areas of agricultural
land ^ still unimproved. It is developing *1*
into a manufacturing country, ^ it may *2*
soon be a power in the commercial world.

United States is fortunate in having so 4
^prosperous a land as it's friendly 26
neighbor.

A STUDENT'S CORRECTIONS
ON THE BACK OF THE PRECEDING PAGE
EXACTLY OPPOSITE THE POINTS WHERE ERRORS WERE MADE

miles, and

land are still

country; it may

The United States

its

HOW TO CORRECT PAPERS IN COLORED INK

Use a colored ink—not the same color as the one in which the paper is written—and make changes between the lines, exactly above the passage that needs to be changed. Insert punctuation where it belongs. Insert an omitted word or passage above a caret (^). Cancel superfluous words by one horizontal stroke. Draw a line through a misspelled word and write the correct spelling above. Correct a faulty paragraph in the margin, or at the end, or on a separate sheet.

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